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AMERICAN SPEECH

A Quarterly of Linguistic Usage

A List of Briticisms

A. F. HUBBELL

Pronunciation in Downstate New York

G. K. THOMAS

Gender of English Words in
Pennsylvania German

CARROLL E. REED

Articles by

R-M. S. HEFFNER, MADORAH E. SMITH
HAROLD WENTWORTH

Reviews by

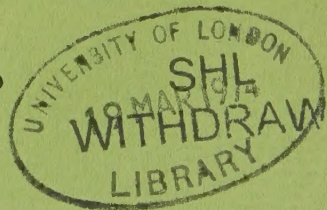
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F. L. MOTT, W. F. TWADDELL

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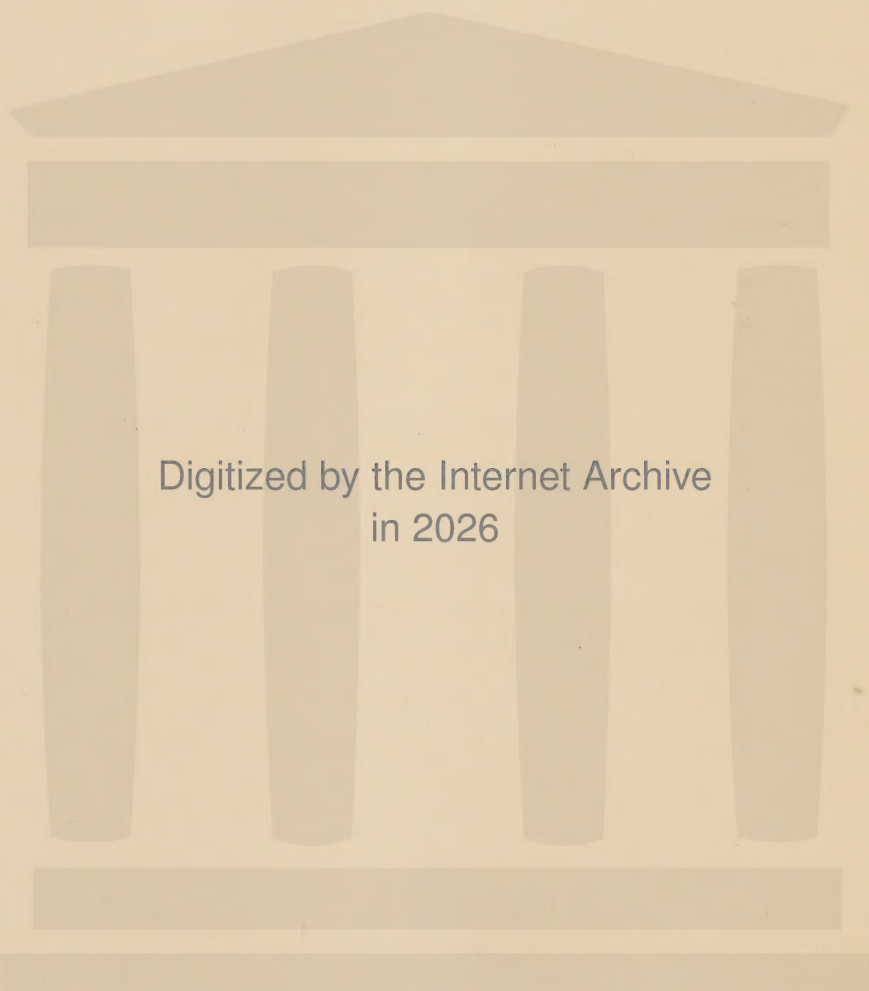
LOUISE POUND, HARRY MORGAN AYRES, HOWARD J. SAVAGE

HAROLD W. BENTLEY, ALLEN WALKER READ



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VOLUME XVII

FEBRUARY, 1942

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CONTRIBUTORS' COLUMN FOR FEBRUARY, 1942

¶A new section in *American Speech*, beginning with this issue, is to be conducted by WOODFORD HEFLIN, associate editor of the *Dictionary of American English*. This section is to be called 'New Evidence on Americanisms,' and contributions to it from our subscribers will be gratefully received. The purpose of the section is to display regularly new evidence on the American vocabulary before 1900. ¶A. F. HUBBELL, an instructor in English in Columbia University, will be known for his other articles which have appeared in the magazine. ¶Another well-known contributor is R-M. S. HEFFNER, Professor of German at the University of Wisconsin. This present article is the fifth in a series on the length of vowels. ¶CARROLL E. REED, instructor in German at Brown University, spent the summer of 1940 collecting material for his article in this issue. Before coming to Brown he took his first degrees at the University of Washington, and he taught there for several years. ¶A frequent contributor to educational and psychological journals is MADORAH E. SMITH, Assistant Professor in the University of Hawaii. Miss Smith was born in China, received her higher education in this country and, apparently believing in the golden mean, went to Hawaii to teach. ¶HAROLD WENTWORTH, Assistant Professor of English in West Virginia University, was at one time on the editorial staff of Webster's *New International Dictionary*. This present article, he writes, 'forms no part of the work on which I have been engaged for several years, an American Dialect Dictionary, and which goes forth steadily.' ¶C. K. THOMAS, Associate Professor of Public Speaking at Cornell University, is currently studying the extension of dialectal boundary lines from New York State into Vermont and Pennsylvania. His article on 'Pronunciation in Downstate New York' is a sequel to his well-known series on 'Pronunciation in Upstate New York,' which appeared some years ago in *American Speech*.

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AMERICAN SPEECH

VOLUME XVII FEBRUARY, 1942 NUMBER 1

A LIST OF BRITICISMS

A. F. HUBBELL

Columbia University

THIS modest collection of Briticisms has been taken for the most part from English detective stories and may be considered as a sop to my conscience, for, though I dearly love such tales, I ordinarily feel somewhat guilty about the time spent reading them. For those who are interested in British usage, indeed, this kind of writing is an excellent source of information. The fact has often been noted that most of the differences between the vocabulary of England and America are to be found on the level of everyday speech; and since the writer of detective stories is always describing in considerable detail the interiors of houses, railroad stations and the like, since he introduces characters from all walks of life, and since he usually avoids the more formal style, he is a better informant than, let us say, Robert Bridges or the writers for the learned journals.

These novels naturally contain a good deal of low slang and criminals' cant. Most of this I have excluded, not because it is uninteresting but because it is already rather thoroughly recorded in the special dictionaries, out of which, no doubt, the mystery-writers took it in the first place.

The words and phrases are arranged alphabetically. Each quotation is followed by a number which refers to the list of books printed at the end, and to the page. Where I have cited a dictionary, for the sake of convenience I have let H stand for Horwill (*An Anglo-American Interpreter*, Oxford, 1939), P for Partridge (*A Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English*, London, 1937), W for *Webster's New International Dictionary* (2d ed.), and OED for the *Oxford English Dictionary*. When no quotation is given, the word is one which I have heard in conversation.

Since I have rarely been west of the North River docks, it may well be that some phrases which I have labelled as Briticisms lead a flourishing existence, unknown to me, in such far-off places as Chicago and the Indian Territory. I have tried to avoid blunders, but if there be any, I beg the reader's indulgence and correction.

ACCOUNTS CLERK. Apparently a sort of head-bookkeeper. 'I'm *accounts clerk* to Christison's, the timber merchant in Lombard street.' 14, 24. See TIMBER MERCHANT.

ALL ANYHOW. Thoroughly jumbled, mixed up, disarranged. 'Somebody's been looking through that desk in a hurry. The papers are *all anyhow*.' 14, 145.

ARSE CREEPING. Attempting to get better grades than one would otherwise receive, by simulating an interest in an instructor or in the subject he teaches. *Bumming up*, which is classified in P as military slang, is also used. The American terms are *ass kissing*, *ass sucking*, and *apple polishing*.

BEETLE. A tool used for tamping down paving-stones, asphalt, etc., consisting of a square base of wood or metal and a long shaft. The word, in this sense, is given in W and in Funk and Wagnall's without localization, but it is, I believe, a Britishism. In New York City such a tool is called a *tamper*. 'Smashed up his family with a *beetle*—a paviour he was by profession, and that's how he came to have a *beetle* in the house . . .' 1, 267.

BELISHA BEACON. A device for regulating traffic, consisting, according to the N.Y. *Times* for April 21, 1935 (Sec. 9, p. 19), of a black-and-white post with an orange globe on it, placed at the side of a road to warn motorists that they are approaching a cross-walk where pedestrians have the right of way. From Leslie Hore-Belisha, Minister of Transport from 1934 to 1937, who introduced them. 'Ida Arnold broke her way across the Strand; she couldn't be bothered to wait for the signals and she didn't trust the *Belisha beacons*.' 13, 37. (Query: Would we use the phrase 'break one's way'?)

BELL-PUSH. The button of a door-bell. 'Brown took his thumb from the *bell-push* and went down the steps two at a time . . .' 3, 7.

BINGLE. A way of cutting women's hair which was fashionable several years ago. It was like the shingle, except that the outer layer of hair was left long. Perhaps from *bob* plus *shingle*. 'Is there a female in the country with hair so black and

curly, that's never been shingled and *bingled*?' 5, 158.

BOOKING HALL. The room in a railroad station which contains the ticket office. H has *booking-office*. 'The left-hand staircase leads into the main *booking hall* of Holmdale station and this hall is lighted.' 4, 3.

BREAKDOWN LORRY. A motor vehicle used to tow a disabled car to a garage. In the United States rather inaptly termed a *wrecker*. 'Morton, my car's outside Savarin's. . . Get your *breakdown lorry* round for it.' 3, 33. In 12, 142 the term *breakdown van* is used.

BRIGHTON ROCK. '. . . a form of stick candy which is as characteristic of English seaside resorts as salt-water taffy is of the American. The word "Brighton" appears on the end of the stick at no matter what point it is broken off.' From a note at the beginning of 13.

BROADSHEET. As applied to a newspaper, this may be a nonce-use. 'He pushed sixpence into the boy's hand and waved away the change and snatched one of the *broadsheets*.' 4, 37.

BROCKLOW. A word, designating some kind of plant, which is not listed in the regular dictionaries or in the gardening handbooks which I have been able to consult. '. . . they nigh washed Mr. Mason's *brocklow* out of the ground, and it wasn't as if they wanted watering, either. . . .' 11, 71. Might this be a dialect form for broccoli? The English Dialect Dictionary has *brockilo*, *broccolow*.

CABARET. A night-club floor-show. W records this sense of the word, without localization. Is it ever so used in the United States? 'The floor was cleared for the last *cabaret* of the evening.' 13, 68.

CAT WON'T JUMP, THAT. That idea's no good. Not in P. 9, 260.

CATCH (SOMEONE) OUT, TO. In cricket, to retire a batsman by catching a hit ball before it touches the ground; figuratively, as here, to detect someone's malefactions. "'I know you don't believe a word I say," said Morrison; "you've *caught me out* and that's enough for you."' 14, 173.

CHANGE DOWN, TO. To shift into a

lower gear. Similarly to *change up*. 'The police car . . . slackened at the right moment, was *changed down* miraculously just before the turning . . .' 3, 6.

CHANGE KIOSK. A change booth. 'His quarry was at the *change kiosk* in a subway station.' 3, 150.

CHAR, TO. To do general housework. Recorded in W without localization, but it is, I believe, a Briticism, although the *charwoman* is not unknown in the United States. 'Artists who live hermit-like and do their own *charing*.' 5, 10.

CHARGE ROOM. The room in a police station, in which the misdeeds of those who have fallen afoul of the Law are noted down on the *charge-sheet*. Among New York policemen, this seems to be known merely as the *front room*. 'The other four were in the *Charge Room* . . .' 3, 3.

CHUFFERS, TO PLAY. To imitate the noises of a locomotive, for the amusement of small children; to play 'choo-choo.' ' . . . he *played chuffers* with Millicent Brade.' 4, 173.

CLERIHEW. A verse form, so called from the middle name of E. C. Bentley, who is said to have invented it. It consists of four lines of irregular length, riming aabb; the first line must contain the name of the person with whom it is concerned. An example from *The New Statesman and Nation*, May 3, 1941, p. 470:

Whenever Mrs. Dyer

Added a child to the heavenly choir

She would take out her hanky

And sing a hymn by Moody and Sankey.

CONVENER OF THE WORKS COMMITTEE. From the context, I assume that this is the equivalent of the chairman of a labor union's grievance committee in a factory. ' . . . the company . . . is prepared . . . to recognize properly elected shop stewards and give the *convener of the works committee* special privileges in representing the men.' 6, 2. (Note: The shop steward system and the term *shop steward* are, I believe, of British origin. It might also be noted here that the definition of *shop steward* given in the OED—'the foreman of a workshop'—is incorrect. A *shop steward* is an

employee chosen by his fellows in the union to present their grievances directly to the employer.)

COUNCIL HOUSE. A low-rent dwelling-house built by a local governmental authority. Not in the OED in this sense. The term, of course, has also in England the general sense of any building in which deliberations are held. 'Me and mother live in a *council house* ourselves . . .' 8, 35.

DEMARCATIION DISPUTE. A dispute between labor unions over the right to organize workers in a given plant or industry; a jurisdictional dispute. 'The enforcing of the rule book had already taken out of the hands of the members their power to start continual small strikes over *demarcation disputes*.' 2, 81.

DISALLOW, TO. Not to allow, to prohibit. In the United States this word is generally used only in the sense of denying the validity of a claim or charge. ' . . . price of tickets threepence to a shilling, children half price, no dogs or babies in arms admitted, smoking strictly *disallowed* . . .' 3, 2.

DIVISIONAL SURGEON. A medical officer attached to a police department; a medical examiner. ' . . . a short pink-faced person who was obviously the *divisional surgeon*.' 9, 58.

DO, TO. To treat, to tend to someone's needs. 'The Chief Constable will bear me out that they *do* one quite well there.' 6, 51.

DO, TO. To cheat. 'Generous with her money and always ready to help a good cause, though she doesn't like being *done*, naturally.' 14, 123.

DO (SOMEONE) DOWN, TO. To cheat. ' . . . lawyers, who . . . were always trying to *do you down*.' 8, 296.

DOCKER. A longshoreman. In W without localization, but it is, I think, not used in this country. 'We have just raised the agricultural labourer's weekly wage to 48s. and the *docker's* to £4 2s. 6d.' *New Statesman and Nation*, April 19, 1941, p. 405.

DUST-UP. A quarrel, a row. 'There was a *dust-up*; and she ran away and married him in Scotland.' 10, 233.

EARLY DAYS. Early, early in the day. 'Cheer up, it's *early days* yet.' 14, 73.

ENTRANCE LOBBY. The platform of a railroad car. 'He led the way . . . and drew his companion into the *entrance lobby* of the next carriage.' 9, 13.

EVERGREEN. This term would not ordinarily be applied to privet, as in the quotation, in the United States. W defines it as a 'half-evergreen' [!], the OED as an evergreen. "'Confound those *evergreens!*" muttered the inspector, who had always disliked privet anyway.' 14, 37.

FAIR ON ME. Fair to me. 'Of course it's true. It really is too bad. It's not *fair on me.*' 7, 293.

FIRM. The reference in the following quotation is to a bank, which we would not call a *firm*. 'You told Mr. Corcoran that your *firm* had sent them no such recommendation.' 14, 82.

FLAPJACK. A large, round woman's compact. 'So she opened it [a hand-bag], and there was the girl's *flapjack* inside.' 11, 164. A nonce-use?

FRANK, TO. To mark a pass, so as to facilitate the coming and going of a person. '. . . armed with an official permit, signed and countersigned and *franked* again. . . ' 4, 62.

FRONT. W defines this word as a 'seaside promenade along a beach' without localization. I do not think it is used in this sense in the United States. The quotation given in W is from Somerset Maugham. 'I'd like to have asked them why he left me like that to go scampering down the *front* in that sun.' 13, 42.

FULL MARKS. An A. '. . . she deserved *full marks.*' 10, 30.

FUSE, TO. Of an electric light, to be extinguished because of the blowing of a fuse. 'I was in his shop once when the light *fused.* . . ' 6, 215.

GANGER. A man in charge of a crew of workmen; a straw-boss. W records this word with no localization. Is it ever used in the United States? No American instances of its use are recorded in the OED. 'Was there no foreman or *ganger?*' 6, 100.

GRAVEL-RASH. Abrasions caused by contact with gravel or any rough surface.

'. . . I had *gravel-rash* all over my face. The brute had rolled me on the rough ground, blast him!' 5, 302.

GUARD'S WAGON. A baggage car. H has *guard's van*. '. . . the *guard's wagon* is often in front of the engine' [of a train going around corkscrew turns]. 9, 16.

TO HAND. At hand, which is also used. '. . . the results were to *hand* before the trial began . . . ' 12, 283.

HAVE UP, TO. To bring before a magistrate. 'People ought to be *had up* for making scenes in public places.' 5, 279.

HEDGE-BRISHINGS. Not in W or the OED. The *English Dialect Dictionary*, after listing *brish* as a variant of *brush*, defines *brushings* as 'small branches; the trimmings off hedges . . . ' '. . . the car was all mucky with manure and *hedge-brishings* . . . ' 14, 196.

HOME LESSONS. Home work assigned to a pupil. *Home work* is also used. "'Upstairs," said the boy's mother, "finishing his *home lessons.*"' 4, 10.

IDENTIFICATION PARADE. A police line-up which includes several persons resembling the suspect, whom witnesses are then asked to identify. 'The two witnesses have very definite statements. They have picked Vayle out at an *identification parade.*' 3, 56.

IN A SMALL WAY, TO BE. To engage in business on a small scale. 'They were in a very *small way*, and though the Essex job was not a particularly big one, it was bigger than anything they were in the habit of handling.' 14, 89.

IN A JOB, TO BE. To have a job. 'He was still in the *same job* up to about a week ago . . . ' 14, 231.

IN THE FORCE, TO BE. To be on the force, to be a policeman. 'What with two boys in the *force*, I'm just a bag of nerves these days . . . ' 3, 216.

ISSUE (SOMEONE) WITH (SOMETHING), TO. To supply someone with something. A military locution. The earliest quotation in the OED supplement is from 1925. 'We've never been *issued with them*' [gas masks]. 11, 43.

KNOCK UP, TO. Mencken notes this phrase in the sense 'to exhaust, wear out,' but I do not find the other common

meaning 'to rouse by knocking,' which is also a source of amusement to Americans. 'Mother's gone back to bed, and I won't have her *knocked up* twice in one night.' 7, 287.

LEAD. An electric cord, a lamp cord. '... presumably there was a *lead* to that reading lamp point over there.' 6, 138. See POINT.

LEAD (SOMEONE) UP THE GARDEN PATH, TO. To deceive someone. '... was simply *leading* the Chief Constable *up the garden path* when he said there had been an attempt to murder him.' 6, 122.

LEARN (SOMETHING) UP, TO. To make oneself familiar with something. 'The Bishop had plenty of other things to occupy his mind. There was the diocese to be *learnt up* . . .' 10, 150.

LEAVE AWAY (FROM SOMEONE), TO. To fail to bequeath property to someone. 'Bertha blessed her late father for tying his fortune up in such a way that John could not *leave it away from her*.' 8, 60.

LEISURED CLASS. Leisure class. So in a tabulation of evidence. 4, 121.

LUNCH, LUNCHEON. The different significations of *lunch* in England and the United States have been sufficiently commented upon elsewhere. Here it only needs to be noticed that the distinction made in the following quotation arises from the fact that, in England, 'many persons still object to it [lunch] as vulgar' (OED). 'Come on!' he said. 'Where to?' '*Lunch—luncheon* if you like it better.' 3, 75.

MATEY. Friendly, sociable. 'Did he get on well with other people—*matey* and so forth?' 14, 32.

MISS ONE'S POT, TO. Apparently, to be unsuccessful. Not in P. '... *missed his pot* at the train, and had a more successful go at the theatre.' 9, 193.

MOIDERED. Confused, bewildered. Called dialectal by W, it is not so classified by the OED, though many of the quotations are obviously intended to represent dialect. '... was completely *moidered* and couldn't tell one from another.' 11, 178.

MUNITION WORKS. A munitions plant. The Murder at the *Munition Works* (in a title).

N.B.G. No bloody good. 'I suppose it's like most of my ideas: *N.B.G.*' 8, 161.

NIGGER DRIVER. A slave driver, which is also used. 'Foul temper—*nigger driver*—never gave a chap a chance . . .' 14, 45.

NOSEY-PARKER. A snoop; Nosey!; to snoop around, to go nosing around. This Briticism has already been recorded by others. I list it only because H gives the American equivalent as *rubber-neck*, which is not entirely correct. '... and he went *nosey-parkering* all over the place while I was answering the telephone.' 14, 153.

OBSTRUCTION. Blocking traffic. 'Morton, my car's outside Savarin's . . . There's a bobby by it. He wants me for *obstruction*.' 3, 33.

OICK. A drug-store cowboy.

ON THE TELEPHONE, TO BE. To have a telephone, to be 'in the book.' 'I suppose you're *on the telephone* here.' 8, 29.

PART BRASS RAGS, TO. To part in unfriendly fashion. 'They *parted brass rags* and Bertha set off in a foul temper.' 8, 237.

PAVIOUR. A road worker, a member of a street-paving gang. Given in W without localization, but it is a Briticism, I believe. For the quotation, see BEETLE.

PAY (SOMEONE) OUT, TO. To pay someone back. '... he told Best to do it just in order to annoy him, to *pay him out* . . .' 14, 47.

PEDESTRIAN. A hiker. In the United States, this word, as a noun, has been specialized to mean 'one who walks, as opposed to one who rides in a car.' 'He had been a vigorous *pedestrian*.' 8, 17.

PETROL LIGHTER. A cigarette lighter, a lighter, which terms are also used, I am told. 'He flicked a *petrol lighter* and lit his cigar.' 11, 6.

PIG IT, TO. To live in filthy fashion. 'This is my sister . . . We *pig it* here together somehow.' 8, 194.

POINT. An electric socket, outlet. *Socket* is also used, but not *outlet*. See LEAD.

POTATO CRISP. A potato chip. 'A cock-tail for his thoughts—or a *potato crisp* if they turned out to be not worth a cock-tail.' 8, 9.

PREP. An assigned lesson, to be prepared

for recitation in class. 'I've just remembered I haven't done the *prep* he sent me.' 12, 42.

PROLETARIAT. Used as a plural, as is *public* and a number of other collectives, which are felt by Americans to be singular. 'Unluckily the *proletariat* are even more conservative in their food than the bourgeoisie.' *New Statesman and Nation*, April 19, 1941, p. 407.

PRUNY AND PRISMY. Prim and mincing in language. The OED supplement has only *prunes-and-prismy*. '... she's forty if she's a day, and all *pruny* and *prismy*.' 14, 46.

PUSH-CYCLE. A bicycle. 'He had the body on the floor of the tonneau and on top of it he had a *push-cycle*, which has left tarry marks on the cushions.' 5, 34.

RAMP. A swindle, a conspiracy to bring about an unjustified rise in the price of a commodity. '... *ramps* and inequalities do far more damage to morale than the Blitz itself.' *New Statesman and Nation*, May 24, 1941, p. 522.

RESTAURANT CAR. A dining-car, diner. *Dining-car* is sometimes used, *diner* is not. '... he had had to see to the coupling of the Pullman *Restaurant Car*, which was put on at Ayr.' 5, 124. Note that *car* is used here, and not *carriage*.

RUNNING, TO MAKE ALL THE. To set the pace; here, to make all the advances. 'But flirtation with his employer's daughter fell outside his code of decent conduct, even if the lady *made all the running* ...' 7, 80.

SAWN-OFF SHOTGUN. The phrase, except for the variation in the participle, is American. '... a salute of two *sawn-off shotguns*.' 9, 15.

SCORING-BLOCK. A tally pad. Not in the OED. 'On the table stood a decanter, flanked with packs of cards and *scoring-blocks*.' 7, 14.

SECOND-HAND MOTOR TRADE. The second-hand car business. 'I gathered that he had something to do with the *second-hand motor trade* ...' 5, 248.

SECOND THOUGHTS, ON. On second thought. 'But, *on second thoughts*, he went back ...' 6, 160.

SEE OVER, TO. To inspect (a building).

'... and get the keys, and come back and *see over* the Manor properly ...' 8, 105.

SHADE TEMPERATURE. Temperature in the shade. 'More so out here, of course, where this last month we have been as high as 116° *shade temperature*.' Advt. in *New Statesman and Nation*, April 26, 1941, p. 442.

SHONK. A low term of abuse applied to Jews. My English acquaintances did not know this word; it may be recent London slang. Other terms in vulgar use are *yid*, *sheenie*, *Ikie*, and *Jew-boy*, but not, apparently, *kike* and *mockie*. 'Let's have a bit of fun with the *shonks* ...' 2, 75.

SICKENER. A sickening experience. In OED, but not in P, though it seems to be slang. 'It'll be a fair *sickener* if they do get off, sir—after all that you've found out.' 7, 307.

SLEEPING-CARRIAGE. A sleeping car, sleeper. Judging by the quotations in the OED, *sleeper* is also used, at least occasionally. Its ordinary sense, as applied to railroads, is that of 'cross-tie' (H). The stern of the *sleeping-carriage* in front swayed and wagged ...' 9, 13.

SMARM, TO. To use obsequious flattery. There is also an adjective, *smarmy*. 'I am going to report you to Mr. Marston. So it's no good thinking you can *smarm* your way out of it.' 14, 11.

SQUINNY, TO. To squint. Is this ever used in the United States? I am told that in England, *squinky-eyes* is a mildly insulting term for one who squints. 'Wimsey ... *squinnied* up his eyes at an elaborate and mannered piece of decorative landscape on the easel ...' 5, 43.

STALL HOLDER. A person in charge of a booth at a bazaar; a concessionaire at an amusement park. In 13, 27 applied to a man who runs a shooting gallery at Brighton.

STARTING-HANDLE. The crank of an automobile. *Crank* is sometimes used. 'I had to swing her over with the *starting-handle*.' 5, 267.

STOP, TO. Colloquially used in some phrases in which most Americans would use *stay* or *stand*. 'Darling, are you proposing to *stop* up here all night!' 10,

212. 'I got to *stop* here until it [my temperature] goes down.' 8, 56. 'We can't *stop* talking here.' 6, 127.

SWEETIES. Candy. (OED: originally, and chiefly Scottish.) '... by dint of coaxing and the gift of a bag of *sweeties* ...' 5, 131.

TAKE QUESTIONS, TO. To answer, in the House of Commons, questions put to the Government by members of Parliament. "'Will you please tell Colonel Eckersleigh," said the Home Secretary, "that I am unavoidably prevented from attending the House today. I should be obliged if he would *take questions*." ' 3, 66.

TAKE UP, TO. To arrest. In W without localization, but it is not used in the United States, I believe. '... policemen only called at people's houses when they wanted to *take* somebody *up*.' 8, 72.

TAKE UP A REFERENCE, TO. To investigate a reference. 'Corcoran said he wrote to us *taking up the reference*, and got a letter back speaking very highly of the firm.' 14, 82.

TIG. The game of *Tag*, which term is also used. 'She'll find him all right playing *Tig* at the end of the street or something.' 4, 19.

TIMBER MERCHANT. Lumber dealer. For quotation, see ACCOUNTS CLERK.

TIP-AND-RUN. Hit-and-run; here, a hit-and-run driver. From cricket, as *hit-and-run* is from baseball. 'Or are you still out to turn an ordinary *tip-and-run* into a mass-murderer?' 14, 212.

TOP OF A ROAD. The end of a road. 'Walk up to the *top of this road*.' 8, 169.

TRUST HOUSE. OED Supplement: 'A public house or hotel owned and managed by a trust company, instead of by brewers or private individuals.' These hotels, I am told, have the reputation of being well run. 'Then I recommend the Sheldon. It's a Trust House right in the middle of the town.' 6, 116.

TWO OVER THE EIGHT. Drunk, eight beers being considered permissible. "'Pelley looks a bit the worse for wear this morning." "*Two over the eight* last night, if you ask me ..." ' 14, 12. Also *one over the eight* (P).

U FILM. A moving picture which children, as well as adults, are permitted to see. *U* stands for 'Universal'—in contradistinction to *A*, for 'Adult.' 'If that had been a *U film*, I shouldn't have been sent to bed yet.' 12, 28.

VESTA. A short match with a wax shaft; a short non-safety wooden match. 'There was a Swan *vesta* box ...' 5, 28.

WALK OVER, TO. To resign from a labor union and join another. 'But if Brother Wentworth thinks the O. L. U. would accept him if he tried to *walk over*, he's very much mistaken.' 6, 61.

WIGGING. A bawling-out. '... take the *wigging* which he was beginning to feel he thoroughly deserved ...' 8, 222.

YOBO. A street-corner loafer. Not in P or the OED. 'Hardly anyone about except a few *yobos* who had got nothing to do, and hung around in irritated idleness, spitting manfully in the gutter and telling dirty stories ...' 2, 73.

LIST OF BOOKS CITED

1. Dorothy L. Sayers, *The Unpleasantness at the Bellona Club*. 1928. (Quoted in the Pocket Book Edition.)
2. Raymond Postgate, *Verdict of Twelve*. 1940.
3. Philip MacDonald, *The Mystery of the Dead Police*. 1933. (Quoted in the Pocket Book Edition.)
4. Philip MacDonald, *Murder Gone Mad*. 1931.
5. Dorothy L. Sayers, *Suspicious Characters*. 1931.
6. G. D. H. and M. Cole, *The Murder at the Munition Works*. 1940.
7. G. D. H. and M. Cole, *End of an Ancient Mariner*. 1933.
8. G. D. H. and M. Cole, *The Brothers Sackville*. 1937.
9. Ngaio Marsh, *Vintage Murder*. 1940.
10. G. D. H. and M. Cole, *Double Blackmail*. 1939.
11. J. R. Warren, *Murder in the Blackout*. 1940.
12. R. C. Woodthorpe, *Rope for a Convict*. 1940.
13. Graham Green, *Brighton Rock*. 1938.
14. G. D. H. and M. Cole, *Counter-point Murder*. 1941.

THE NEO-PSEUDO-SUFFIX '-EROO'

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IN CERTAIN circles—notably radio, sports, advertising, and motion pictures—one often does not pay the check, take a dive, tell a joke, or listen to swing music. Instead he pays the *checkeroo*, takes a *diveroo*, tells a *jokeroo*, and listens to *swingaroo*. Do such terms as these merely end with meaningless extra syllables? Sometimes they do, but not always. There is a perceptible semantic variation between the new forms with tails and the old acaudate ones. That is, it may not be quite so jarring to the playwright's sensibilities to read that his work is a *flopperoo* as to read that it is—tersely, bluntly, rudely—a flop. And the hapless sapperoo or bummaroo seems somehow less so than he used to be before the suffixion.

Common as such new words are, little has been written about them.¹ Some fifty have come to my attention; no special search was made in the numerous likely sources particularized below. The eye, it cannot choose but see; we cannot bid the ear stop listening to the radio. And nearly thirty, or about a third of all the quotations below, were heard on the radio.

The prototype of these curious toy-words, the one by analogy with which they may well have been formed, is the American dialect *buckaroo*, used in the West and Canada, according to *Webster's*, a word whose full history it is not proposed to detail here. It is doubtful whether any other English word in *-aroo*, including *kangaroo*, is a more probable progenitor of today's ubiquitous brood. But the semasiologic jump from the sense of 'bronco-buster, cowboy' to the widely varying senses of the analogues (for example, *crusheroo*, a crush; *pokeroo*, poker) is so great as to suggest to the imaginative the saltations of the bronco and the kangaroo. The transfer of a postfix or infix without accompanying transfer of its meaning is familiar enough in English, however; an *Arkansawyer* is no kind of sawyer; the *hoo* of *Scandihoovian* need not itself carry meaning in order that we may understand the entire word, though we may wonder why *hoo* replaces *na*.² As we acquire the knack of it we readily come to

1. *American Speech* began mentioning them, excepting *buccaroo*, in 1931 with *flopperoo* and continued with *flopperoo*, *Bingeroo*, *checkeroo*, *snoozemarooed*, and *gageroo*. *Dialect Notes* records *buckaroo* in 1913 and 1937, and between these years *jiggeroo*, *gazaroo*, *gozaroo*. Disregarding *buckaroo*, the seven commonest words, listed in Conclusion 4 below, are not in Eric Partridge's *Dictionary of Slang & Unconventional English* (1938) or H. L. Mencken's *American Language* (1937). nor do they cite any form of the suffix.

2. For other examples, see my "Sandwich" Words and Rime-Caused Nonce Words,' *Philological Studies*, 3: 70 f. (West Virginia University, Sep. 1939).

understand that a *scooteroo* is a scooter, and *socceroo* is soccer. One learns to disregard the *-oo* or *-roo*, as in childhood he disregarded the *-ay* at the end of pig-Latin words.

In the title, I have called *-eroo* a 'neo-pseudo-suffix'—'neo' because eighty-one of its uses recorded below occurred in the last two years, since August, 1939, and none before 1931 except random distant relatives (*jiggeroo*, *gazeroo*); and 'pseudo' because of its deceptive resemblance to bona-fide suffixes like *-ness*, *-er*, and *-(o)logy*. The suffixial element in question is multiform and unpredictable, largely because its almost exclusive use is now in that unpredictable lawless appendage to standard English—slang.³ The usual form is *-eroo* (thirty words: *brusheroo*, *Bingeroo*, etc.); next is *-oo* (ten words: *jitteroo*, *smackeroo*, etc.); third, crowded out by the two less 'pure' forms just mentioned, is the original parent *-aroo* (six words: *bummaroo*, *slickaroo*, *swingaroo*, etc.). Compare the instability of the suffix from *cafeteria* (*-eteria*, *-teria*, *-eria*) and that in *racketeer* (*-eer*, *-teer*, *-eteer*, *-ateer*). Fourth is an odd-fish form with an intrusive *am*, if it may be called that. It is represented only by *snoozamerooed* and *kissamaroo*.⁴ In fifth and last place, if it has a place at all, is *-roo*, which according to the logic of progressive truncation should be between *-eroo* and *-oo* in frequency. (All inferences throughout this paper are based only on the evidence at hand at this writing.) To obtain any instances whatever of *-roo* added to a word, spelling must replace pronunciation as a criterion: thus *bounceroo* consists of the spelling *bounce* + *roo*. According to pronunciation, the word is [bauns] + [ə'u] or [ə'ru]. Similarly, *diveroo* is [darv] + [ə'u] or [ə'ru], and *jokeroo* is [dʒok] + [ə'u] or [ə'ru]. In fine, *-eroo*, *-oo*, *-aroo*, *-amaroo*, and *-roo* comprise the suffixeme.⁵

As frequently in dialect there is no standard accepted spelling, so also with these slang words; and hence no reasonably phonetic spelling can be called, in the usual sense, a misspelling. Several of the words recorded from print are misleadingly spelled, however, probably by writers who failed to see beyond their surface simplicity. Thus *driperoo* spells [draipə'u]; whereas *dripperoo* [drɪpə'u] is intended. So also of *floperoo* [flop-], *gageroo* [gedʒ-], *snaperoo* [snep-], *spoteroo* [spot-], and *ziparoo*

3. 'When sports writers and the sporting world starts tacking suffixes on words the thing is done without much method. Witness the present vogue of *-o*, *-ola*, and *-eroo*.' Peter Tamony in *American Speech*, Oct., 1937, p. 244.

4. Cited by Dwight L. Bolinger. See *American Speech*, Dec., 1941, p. 309.

5. There are some words in which the extent of the suffix—the exact sounds or letters in it—cannot be readily determined because of uncertainty (mine, at least) as to the extent and meaning of the first element of the words. They are: *Vickeroo* (*Vic?* or *Vick?* or *Vicky?* or *Vicker(s)?* or, as is most probable, *Victory?* + *-oo?* or *-roo?* or *-eroo?*), *wackeroo*, *whackeroo*, *gazeroo*.

[,zaɪp-], which for the reader's benefit should be spelled *flopperoo*, *gaggeroo*, *snapperoo*, *spotteroo*, and *zipparoo* or better still *zipperoo*. *Ziparoo*, recently set before millions of magazine readers, could also be read uncomprehendingly something like [zɪ'pɑru] by those who happen not to be aware of this little word-game. The original spellings may be seen in the quotations below. Note also the following derivatives or relatives of the two commonest *-eroo* words: *buckaree*, *buckarino*, *buckarooly*; *swingadilla*, *swingerette*.

Mr. Allen Walker Read has alertly observed and kindly contributed to this study an illustrative quotation for each of sixteen different terms, all dated 1941 and incorporated with other evidence below.

ANTSEROO. 1941 'What about the antseroo?' Musical comedy *Lousiana Purchase*, Nov. 1, in context with phrase 'ants in (one's) pants.'

BINGEROO. 1939 "'Paris Honeymoon" starring Bing Crosby is advertised as "A Bang-Up Bingeroo of Fun."' *Am. Sp.*, 14: 318.

BOUNCEROO. 1941 'I'm likely to get the bounceroo . . . I hear you're getting the bounceroo.' Musical comedy *Pal Joey*, June.

BRUSEROO. 1941 'That's why I'm getting the brusheroo.' *Ibid.* 1941 'The new script [of 'The Shanghai Gesture'] is the thirty-third adaptation submitted to the Hays office . . ., the other thirty-two having got a quick brusheroo from the anti-vice king.' 'Talk of the Town,' *New Yorker*, Oct. 18, p. 13.

BUCCAROO. 1900 *DAE*. 1925 Western U.S. *Am. Sp.*, 1: 152.

BUCKEREE. c.1917 'Around Pasco, Walla Walla and Pendleton, Oregon, Thomas was considered some buckaree.' Port Angeles *Tribune-Times*, in *Dial. Notes*. 5: 54. 1934 'A cowboy, especially in the Southwest,' Weseen, *Dict. Amer. Slang*.

BUCKARINO. 1940 'We pay more than 4 & 20 in buckarinos that the "lim [erick]" fans seek.' A. J. Snell, Syracuse, N.Y., *Post-Standard*, June 16, p. 32.

BUCKAROO. 1907 buckeroo. *DAE*. 1913 buckaroo. Used throughout the cattle-raising states and in Mexico and Canada. *Dial. Notes*, 4: 26. 1913, 1916 buckaroo. *DAE*, which gives six other spellings from 1827 to 1910. 1931 -aroo. n.e. Ore-

gon, Wallowa Co. *Am. Sp.*, 6: 230. 1934 buckeroo, variant of buckaroo. *Webster's*. 1934 buckeroo. Weseen, *Dict. Amer. Slang*. 1937 'Buckaroo seems to have dropped out.' H. L. Mencken, *American Language*, 4th ed., p. 152, note 1. 1937 In the Texas Big Bend buckaroo seems not to be used. Common elsewhere in the West, esp. Montana. *Dial. Notes*, 6: 620. 1939 WJZ—Robison Buckaroos. Radio program, Dec. 15. 1940 'Jack [Benny], the Buckaroo . . .' Advt. of film, Morgantown, W.Va., *Post*, May 18.

BUCKAROLY, adj. 1941 'Rear Admiral . . . Giffen, 55, is the tall (6 ft. 2 in.) buckarooly commander of the Fleet's . . . heavy cruisers.' *Time*, June 2, p. 18.

BUMMAROO. 1940 'Most of us bummaroos felt like she was a sort of a kid sister.' Jerome Barry, 'Mutiny at the Soda Counter,' *Sat. Eve. Post*, Apr. 13, p. 18.

CHECKEROO. 1940 = a night-club check. Cited from *Variety*, n.d., in *Am. Sp.*, 15: 204.

CLEAREROO. 1941 'That's what you call a 300-dollar cleareroo.' Ben Bernie, radio, Mar. 25.

CRUSEROO. 1941 'Having something of a crusheroo on The Kaye myself . . .' Dixie Tighe, N.Y. *Post*, Mar. 14, p. 17.

DIVEROO. 1941 ' . . . the Alumni are going to pull a Steve Brodie and take a diveroo . . .' Bob Mellace, *Daily Athenaeum* (W.Va. Univ.), Apr. 30, p. 4.

DRIPEROO. 1940 'Queenie [a trained flea] died last night, and that was sad

- news to the gang around the old Driperoo.' Geo. Tucker's column 'Seen in N.Y.C.,' May 25.
- DROOPEROO. 1941 'I need a superman, a B.T.O.,/ No drizzle drip discreeteo,/ No drooperoo will do.' C. Touchette & V. Joyce, 'Poor Little Sub-Deb,' *Big Song Mag* I.8.18.
- FINKEROO. 1941 'A.F.L. Finks & Rats/ Finkeroos.' Scrawled on an advt. in an 'el' station, Chicago, evidently by some C.I.O. partisan. Autumn.
- FLOPPEROO. 1931 'Walter Winchell loves to . . . [see] terpsichorines . . . in revusicals which might even turn out floperoos.' *Am. Sp.*, 7: 45. 1936 ' . . . Georgia Tech the greatest flopperoo in football.' J. Oliver, *Richmond News-Leader*, Dec. 26, cited in *Am. Sp.*, 12: 18. 1937 '[Hollywood] divides the failures into three subdivisions: flop, flopperoo, and kerplunk.' *The New Masses*, cited in *Am. Sp.*, 13: 107. 1937 *Variety*. n.d., cited in *Am. Sp.*, 12: 317. 1940 'The past eight years have seen more economic experiments than you could shake a lorgnette at, and most of them were spectacular floperoos.' Weare Holbrook, *This Week*, June 2, p. 12. 1941 'The opening of Congress, as a dramatic spectacle, ordinarily is a flopperoo.' Jack Stinnett, 'A Washington Daybook' column, Jan. 13. 1941 'I'm the show—and a flopperoo, if ever there was one!' Advt., *Sat. Eve. Post*, Mar. 8, p. 39. 1941 'She had a personality-plus part in an outstanding flopperoo.' Dixie Tighe, *N.Y. Post*, June 6, p. 7. 1941 ' . . . Hutchinson, the \$75,000 flopperoo who now is the International League's leading pitcher.' Joe Cumiskey, 'Sports Ticker Talk,' *PM's Weekly*, Aug. 31, p. 28.
- FOOSHEROO. 1941 "'Ah, domn and foosherool!" he [Mr. Glencannon] growled.' Guy Gilpatric, 'Where Early Fa's the Dew,' *Sat. Eve. Post*, March 22, p. 118.
- GAGGEROO. 1940 ' . . . a broken-down gaggeroo.' John Barrymore, radio, Feb. 29. 1941 'I got thousands of Rowley's gageroos.' Bugs Baer, *Washington Times-Herald*, Jan. 18, cited in *Am. Sp.*, 16: 158.
- GAUCHOROO, GAUCHEROO. 1941 'It's hot tamales he likes the most./ He's just a gaucher roo [sic].' 'Since Nick the Greek Went to Porto Ric,' *Big Song Mag* I.8.21.
- GAZAROO. A boy. c.1921 'Me darlin' gazaroo.' Newfoundland. G. A. England, *Dial. Notes*, 5: 332.
- GOZAROO. A fellow. *Dial. Notes*, 5: 333.
- GUTSEROO. 1940 ' . . . emotional music ("the old gutseroo") . . . Hollywood's tunesmiths could handle the atmosphere, gutseroo included, with perfect ease.' *Time*, Apr. 15, p. 79.
- HAMEROO. 1941 ' . . . from . . . the audience reaction it looks like my best to date. It is a good part and not strictly hameroo where I do nothing but show the good side of my kisser all the time,' John O'Hara, *New Yorker*, Nov. 15, p. 26.
- ICKEROO. 1941 'No ickeroo will do . . . I'm . . . in an icky plight.' From same song as *drooperoo* above. 1941. 'All the ickeroos and the jigaboos.' 'Clap Your Hands on the Afterbeat,' radio song, Nov. 8.
- JAZZEROO. 1941 'That bit of jazzeroo.' MBS radio, July 5.
- JIGGEROO, interj. A warning to be careful or escape. 1919 Current for some years among hobos infesting transcontinental railroad lines. Cant. *Dial. Notes*, 5: 41. 1927 A warning that the police are coming. Current. *Dial. Notes*, 5: 452.
- JITTEROO. 1941 'Here's a Harlem-inspired jitteroo.' Radio, announcing a song, May 30.
- JOKEROO. 1939 'We must go on to the next jokeroo.' Radio, Milton Berle, Dec. 9.
- KICKEROO. A mule. 1941 "'Where would I get the money for a kickeroo?'" Glenn Allan, 'Any News, Mr. Chinnus?' *Sat. Eve. Post*, Sept. 13, p. 56. (A dialect story, apparently southern U.S.)
- KISSEROO. 1940 'Maybe poking Loud Mouth in the old kisseroo would solve everything for him.' Duane Decker, 'Loud Mouth,' *This Week*, June 2, p. 6. 1941 = a kiss. 'Well, to start things off, here's a little kissaroo.' Don Ameche, WEAf, Sept. 4.
- KYSEROO. 1940 'Hinky Dinky, Kyseroo' (song). Radio, Kay Kyser program, Dec. 4.

- PHRASEROO.** 1941 [Apropos of hunting a synonym:] 'Call you back five at the latest—it's a tough one, strictly a phraseroo, but we'll work around it yet.' Otis Ferguson, *New Republic*, Aug. 18, p. 220.
- POKEROO.** 1940 'How 'bout some sociable poker-oo or dice?' Major Hoople in 'Our Boarding House' cartoon, Feb. 14.
- SAPPEROO.** 1941 'I had him figured out as a sapperoo that didn't have brains enough . . .' Film, 'Wagons Roll at Night,' May 19.
- SCOOTEROO.** 1941 'These Western scooteroos travel in schools.' Newsreel of water ski acrobats, July 4.
- SCREAMAROO.** 1940 'Jack [Benny], the Buckaroo, and his laugh roundup hit the screen with a scream-aroo!' Advt., Morgantown, W.Va., *Post*, May 18, p. 10.
- SLICKAROO.** 1941 'Slickaroo #3. Cool sheer rayon Bemberg.' Bloomingdale's advt., *N.Y. Times*, June 29, I, 10.
- SMACKEROO.** 1940 Carole Lombard: 'How much [money] have you got?' Charlie McCarthy: 'A hundred smackeroos, that's what I've got.' Radio, Mar. 10. 1941 'Concentrate [on this question] because it's a hundred smackeroos.' Radio, Ben Bernie, Feb. 25. 1941 '400 smackeroos waiting for this yere colonel . . . Try and think, sergeant, 400 smackeroos.' *Ibid.*, Apr. 1. 1941 'It's your chance to pick up 50 smackeroos—dollars.' Radio, May 6. 1941 '. . . and 10 smackeroos.' Radio, Bernie, May 9. 1941 'It's your chance to increase your bankroll by 50 smackeroos.' Radio, May 20. 1941 'It means a hundred smackeroos.' Radio, Bernie, May 30. 1941 '50 smackeroos.' Radio, June 3.
- SNAPPEROO.** 1941 'Here's the snapperoo: Goldstone has never made a penny out of this critical faculty.' 'Talk of the Town,' *New Yorker*, May 17, p. 13. 1941 'That's the old snapperoo! Been eating yeast again?' Advt., *Sat. Eve. Post*, July 26, p. 65.
- SNOOZEMAROOED**, adj. Drunk. 1940 w. Texas, Brewster Co. 'He is pretty obviously "snoozemarooed."' *Am. Sp.*, 15: 221. (Also cited as 'snoozamoroed,' *Am. Sp.*, 16: 70).
- SOCCEROO.** 1941 'These socceroos mean business.' Newsreel of soccer players, Feb. 12.
- SOCKEROO.** 1940 'A hit-tune sockeroo called "You Bring Me Down."' Radio, Nov. 18.
- SPOTEROO.** 1941 'As much as we dislike putting anyone on the old spoteroo, . . . we will have a powerhouse.' Morgantown, W.Va., *Post*, sports page, May 14.
- STINKAROO.** 1939 'Since "The Wizard of Oz" is full of stuff as bad as that, or worse, I'll say it's a stinkaroo.' Russell Maloney, *New Yorker*, Aug. 19, p. 52. 1940 'Whenever you hear an exhibitor say "it'll make a lot of money" after a preview, the odds are 2 to 1 the picture's a stinkaroo.' H. W. Cohen, *Pittsburgh Post-Gazette*, May 21, p. 20. 1940 'Saturday afternoon the Varsity had given a performance that was a stinkaroo.' Tony Constantine, Morgantown, W.Va., *Post*, Sep. 9, p. 7. 1941 'The film was a stinkaroo.' Oral. 1941 '. . . he hops right over to Schulberg's producer before the ink is dry and says, "This guy should not live, he is an insult to the integrity of the industry and a stinkaroo."' Otis Ferguson, *New Republic*, Aug. 18, p. 221.
- STUFFEROO.** 1941 'You do your stufferoo.' Musical comedy *Louisiana Purchase*, Nov. 1.
- SUCCESSEROO.** 1940 'Successeroo Story' (heading). *New Yorker*, May 11, p. 84.
- SWINGADILLA**, n. Swing music. 1939 (from next source below).
- SWINGAROO.** 1939 'Swingaroo has given me a new attitude.' Andy Razaf, 'In the Mood' (song). 1939? 'Wolfgang Amadeus joins the swingaroos.' Radio, Alec Templeton's program, Dec. 11. 1940 'Try our Donahue "Swingaroo" Soda.' Advt., Morgantown, W.Va., *Post*, Feb. 5, p. 2. 1940 'That [music] was a la swingaroo.' *WMMN*, Nov. 26. 1941 'Here's another little bit of swingaroo stuff, titled . . .' *Ibid.*, Jan. 25. 1941 'You better get hep to the new swingaroo.' Song, *WWVA*, May 22. 1941 '. . . the following swingaroo . . .' Radio, July 9. 1941 'And then we'll have a portion of swingaroo by Bob Crosby.' Radio, July 18. 1941 'An original swingaroo.' Radio, introducing song

- 'Killo Dillo de Lillo,' Aug. 12. 1941 '... will sing a swingaroo, "Sweeter Than the Sweet" ... Huh, swingaroo. I got that [word] from Hot Lips Levine.' Radio Sept. 14. 1941 'Music will be furnished by Sammie's Sizzling Swingaroos.' Lichty cartoon, W.Va. Univ. *Athenaeum*, Sept. 27, p. 2. 1941 '[Columbus] kept on searching for the land of swingaroo.' Abe Lyman, recorded song, Nov. 20.
- SWINGERETTE. 1941 'Those are the Chesterfield Swingerettes.' Radio, Fred Waring, May 12.
- SWITCHEROO. 1934 A new & different gag based on an old one. Theater slang. Weseen, *Dict. Amer. Slang*.
- VICKEROO. 1941 "'The Vickeroo," as prepared by Gino at the bar of Tony's La Marquise.' N.Y. *Post*, June 10, p. 8.
- WACKAROO. 1941 'The object, named "Wackaroo," is a small ... plaster figure ... designed to fit the angry human hand.' *Time*, Feb. 10, p. 16.
- WHACKEROO. 1940 'The sports writers take the lead in promoting most of the high-powered whackeroo which features life in fight camps.' Jack Miley, 'What Do They Mean, Fight Camps?,' *Sat. Eve. Post*, May 18, p. 100.
- ZIPAROO. 1941 'You've got a world of the old ziparoo today! Been eating yeast again?' *Adv. Sat. Eve. Post*, Mar. 8, p. 76.

CONCLUSIONS

1. All recent terms in *-eroo* and its variants are nouns. They are rarely used attributively: *swingaroo stuff*, *swingaroo soda*. 'Successeroo Story' is an editorial attempt to satirize the popular coinages, and is exceptional in another respect (see Conclusion 2). *Jiggeroo*, an interjection, antedates the vogue and seems to be related only in form to the type discussed. *Kyseroo* is unclassifiable except as patterned on *parlez-vous*.
2. All have three syllables and, moreover, follow the accentual model of the cretic ('~'), the amphimacer of Greek and Latin prosody. Although primary and secondary stress marks have been used in the IPA transcriptions above, the first and third syllables of *-eroo* words are often equally accented, as they must be when described in terms of the metrical foot. *Successeroo*, more artificially concocted than the others, is the only one having more than three syllables. *Snoozamorooed* (4 syllables) has no documentary support and is probably erroneous.
3. The suffixial element, in order of frequency, is *-eroo*, *-oo*, *-aroo*, *-amaroo*, and, considering letters instead of sounds, *-roo*.
4. Four-fifths of the words (about forty) occur only once. One-fifth have from two to twelve quotations each: *swingaroo* twelve, *buckaroo* nine (and two or three derivatives each); *flopperoo* nine, *smackeroo* eight; *stinkeroo* has five (dysphemism here balances the euphemism mentioned in the first paragraph of this paper); *gaggeroo*, *jiggeroo*, and *snapperoo* have two. These figures point to (a) the great freedom with which *-eroo* combines with common words; and (b) the probable nonceness of most *-eroo* words. If they prove impermanent, our popular language will lack a lively streak of bizarre color in the future-oo.

THE ENGLISH OF HAWAIIAN CHILDREN

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SOME time ago Reinecke and Tokimasu¹ described in *American Speech* the English dialect spoken in Hawaii. They explained its origin as due to the modification by the schools of the pidgin English which had come into use because of the need of a lingua franca on the plantations. Since the laborers on the plantations who had come as immigrants from China, Japan, and the Philippines were directed by American or British foremen, such a means of communication was necessary. The attempt of the schools to modify this pidgin into a more acceptable English has resulted in a dialect continuum ranging from the crudest attempts to make needs known in the most broken English to the speech of those who use English adequately and clearly, yet modified in some respects by the local dialect.

This paper reports some of the peculiarities of this dialect as discovered in the speech of young children by means of a word-frequency count. This count was made as one phase of a study² of the language development and mastery of English of preschool children of various racial antecedents in Hawaii. For the study, 1,021 fifty-sentence samples of the conversation of little children from two to six years of age were recorded while the children were engaged in free play about their own homes or at kindergartens. The conversations were recorded by university students of the same racial ancestry as that of the children they observed. A word-frequency count was made of the English portions of the records. Altogether a total of 142,574 English words, including 2,123 different words, were scanned and tabulated.³

The children represented six of the eight largest racial groupings in the Islands. Although all had been born in the United States and were therefore American citizens, 252 of them were of Filipino ancestry, 207 of Japanese, 159 of Chinese, 136 of Portuguese, 140 of Hawaiian or part-Hawaiian, and 127 of Korean ancestry. Most of them were from Honolulu, but 160

1. Reinecke, J. E., and Tokimasu, A., 'The English dialect of Hawaii.' *American Speech*, 9: 48-58, 122-131 (1934).

2. Smith, Madorah E., 'Some light on the problem of bilingualism as found from a study of the progress in mastery of English among preschool children of non-American ancestry in Hawaii,' *Genet. Psychol. Monog.*, 21: 119-284 (1939).

3. A complete list, in which all words occurring more than five times are included in a comparison with other vocabulary studies, has been mimeographed for use in the Islands; a few copies of this list are available and may be obtained from the author.

TABLE I

Words Used at Least Three Times as Often by the Children in Hawaii as
by Those on the Mainland, the Higher Frequency Being
Due to Peculiarities of the Local Dialect

	H. ¹	K.	
already	203	60	Often used merely to express past time.
'ass (that's)	357	0	As in 'ass mine for <i>that's mine</i> , also with <i>why</i> instead of <i>because</i> when answering questions of <i>Why?</i>
*baldhead(ed)	17	0	Used in name calling, a literal translation of a Japanese term. See <i>damn</i> .
broke	367	37	Generally used in this form, <i>break</i> occurring only 11 times. Regularly used for <i>tear</i> or <i>torn</i> .
*bullshirt or bull-liar	20	0	Common terms, both used instead of <i>You're a liar</i> or <i>You lie</i> . See <i>damn</i> .
by-'n-by	334	not listed	Often used to express simple future.
catch	255	42	Also used instead of <i>take</i> or <i>get</i> .
chance	38	2	Every time used instead of <i>turn</i> in <i>taking turns</i> .
care	119	26	In <i>no care</i> for <i>I don't care</i> .
damn	14	0	All words checked () suggest the ease with which swear words and vulgar terms are picked up when people come in contact with a new language.
**eh	395	0	One of four words (marked **) all commonly used at the end of declarative sentences to turn them into questions, instead of <i>isn't it</i> , <i>don't you</i> , and similar phrases.
'em or um	1,150	0	Used indiscriminately for every third person pronoun, especially instead of <i>it</i> .
fool	30	2	Usually with meaning of <i>bother</i> or <i>meddle with</i> .
go	4,685	621	Used as a sort of universal auxiliary with other verbs to express past, future or infinitive.
going	2,069	133	Used as in <i>going to</i> to express future, but <i>to</i> is generally omitted.
**huh	75	11	Another of the asking words.
kind	714	80	Used as the Chinese classifier, as in phrases like <i>funny kind man</i> ; in no case with the meaning <i>benevolent</i> .
lazy	20	4	Used instead of <i>tired of</i> or <i>disinclined to do</i> .

1. Column H. gives the frequency of use in Hawaii; column K. gives the frequency according to the International Kindergarten Union study, divided by 3.4.

	H.	K.	
lend	158	0	Instead of <i>let</i> , as in <i>Lend me look</i> .
like	2,382	701	Includes meaning of <i>want to</i> , <i>wish</i> , and <i>desire</i> .
long	65	11	In <i>long time</i> used for <i>long ago</i> , <i>once</i> , or <i>used to</i> .
master	39	7	Instead of <i>it</i> in playing certain games and the name given to a form of hide and seek.
me	3,258	907	Often erroneously for other first person pronouns; used by the Japanese children with a Japanese ending for <i>my</i> , and with <i>I</i> (as in the sentence 'Me I have no pencil').
mines	56	0	For <i>mine</i> .
more	1,313	255	With <i>no</i> instead of <i>none</i> or <i>not</i> , with <i>little</i> instead of <i>soon</i> or <i>almost</i> , and with comparatives, as in <i>more better</i> .
no	4,234	412	Instead of <i>not</i> or <i>n't</i> , as in <i>I no can</i> .
only	297	83	Used for <i>just</i> .
open	179	55	Includes idea of <i>unbutton</i> and of turning on light or power.
plenty	204	0	Used without <i>of</i> instead of <i>many</i> , <i>greatly</i> , or <i>very</i> .
scare	29	8	Instead of <i>am afraid</i> , as in <i>I scare</i> .
*scram	69	0	Common slang word.
shame	34	0	Includes meanings of <i>embarrassed</i> and <i>shy</i> .
small	141	33	Used also instead of <i>little</i> , <i>tiny</i> , and <i>wee</i> .
smart	36	0	Used instead of <i>clever</i> , <i>bright</i> , or <i>cute</i> .
sore	199	7	Used instead of <i>ache</i> , <i>hurt</i> , or <i>pain</i> .
stay	419	78	Used instead of many forms of the verb <i>to be</i> both as copula and as auxiliary, as <i>He stay sleep</i> , or <i>Papa no stay</i> for <i>Papa is not at home</i> .
tell	554	156	Used instead of <i>say</i> .
try	198	51	Used with almost any imperative as in <i>Try come here</i> .
wait	272	57	Includes the idea of a threat instead of <i>Watch out</i> .
waste	118	5	In phrase <i>waste time</i> to express disinclination instead of <i>I don't want to</i> .
wild	30	10	Used instead of <i>angry</i> or <i>scold</i> , as in <i>Mama wild me</i> .
**yeah	334	0	Another asking word.
yet	133	54	Frequently added to sentences to express or emphasize the past tense.

were from rural sections of Oahu or from the islands of Maui or Kauai. The proportion of English words in the fifty-sentence samples ranged from an average of fifty per cent for the children of Japanese ancestry to an average of 99 per cent for those of Portuguese ancestry.

The frequency of the words in the vocabulary obtained from analysis of these records is compared with that found in the International Kindergarten Union's study.⁴ As 489,555 running words were examined in that study, it was necessary to divide the frequencies given in that list by 3.4 to make them comparable to the frequencies obtained in the Hawaiian study.

All words used at least three times as often or less than one-fifth as often by the children in Hawaii were located in the compared lists and possible reasons for such discrepancies were considered. For some words such as the names of colors, used more frequently on the Mainland, the fact that those records had all been taken in kindergarten (where much is made of colors) was the obvious explanation. A large proportion of the discrepancies were due to environmental differences, such as the low frequency or even absence in the Hawaii list of such words as *winter*, *snow*, *sled*, and the high frequency of others such as *guava* and *cane*. In this paper will be presented only those words for which the discrepancies in use are explainable by the peculiarities of the local dialect.

In Table I are shown the words of higher frequency in Hawaii whose high occurrence is due in part to the manner of their use in the local dialect. Explanations are given of each of the words. Attention is called to the number of interjections in this list. Such words are of high frequency in immature speech when an individual cannot express himself in more precise language. By far the greater majority of the children studied are bilingual and were found to be retarded in the use of English; they frequently resorted to interjections. The complete list includes several other such words occurring many more times in the Hawaii list than in that of the Kindergarten Union. Only two types of interjections are listed here. One type consists of such words as *damn*, which are of higher frequency because the children's parents do not know they are considered improper in acceptable English. Swearwords have often been found among the words learned early by laborers working under direction of persons speaking a language foreign to them. The other type of interjections consists of words used at the end of sentences declarative in form to turn them into questions. Besides the three listed (*eh*, *huh*, and *yeah*), *ha*, a Chinese word correctly so used in that language, was especially popu-

4. *A Study of the Vocabulary of Children before Entering the First Grade*, Washington, D.C., International Kindergarten Union, 1928, pp. 36.

TABLE II

Words Used at Least Six Times by Mainland Kindergartners and Either Unknown or Used One-Fifth or Less as Often by the Children in Hawaii; Less Frequent Use Due in Part to Peculiarities of the Local Dialect

	H.	K.			H.	K.
a, an	288	6,338	<i>one</i> or <i>the</i> used instead when the article is not omitted altogether.	the one	3,035 1,483	4,628 1,175
afraid	6	38	<i>scare</i> used instead.	scare	29	8
almost	18	82	<i>little more</i> used instead, as in <i>I lili more fall down.</i>			
always	6	55	<i>every time</i> used instead, as in <i>I every time tell you bring home candy.</i>	every time	82 479	67 248
because, 'cause	50	292	' <i>ass why</i> is used instead, as in <i>She sick, 'ass why she no come</i> , instead of <i>She didn't come because she was sick.</i>	why	223	96
cute	4	110	<i>smart</i> takes its place in part.	smart	36	0
do	162	666	<i>make</i> used instead.	make	1,027	1,283
east, west, north, south	0	32	directions given by using place names and two Hawaiian words meaning <i>to the sea</i> and <i>to the mountains</i> .			
food	1	21	<i>kaukau</i> , an Hawaiianization of a Chinese word, is often used			
breakfast	0	19	instead; in other cases the			
dinner	4	27	home language is substituted.			
supper	3	22				
great	2	69	<i>big</i> is usually used instead of any	big	411	229
large	0	5	of these three terms, also used			
tall	7	18	in the phrase <i>come big</i> instead			
grow	11	86	of <i>grow</i> .			
have	198	1,323	<i>get</i> often used instead.	get	1,509	845
hunt	0	11	<i>find</i> used instead.	find	124	66
kitten	1	10	<i>pussy</i> used instead.	pussy	50	13
is	367	2,281	<i>stay</i> or <i>get</i> used instead.	stay	419	78
it	258	2,948	for all these three words <i>them</i> , <i>em</i> , or <i>um</i> may be used.			
its	4	97				
they	113	815				
just	52	281	<i>only</i> used instead, also merely for emphasis, as in <i>I no like only sing.</i>	only	297	83
little	115	996	<i>small</i> is much more commonly	small	141	33
tiny	3	19	used; <i>little</i> is used mainly	more	1,313	255
wee	0	6	when pronounced <i>lili</i> , in the			
hardly	0	9	phrase <i>lili more</i> for <i>almost</i> ,			
nearly	2	12	<i>hardly</i> , or <i>nearly</i> .			
once	9	52	<i>long time</i> is used instead.			

	H.	K.		H.	K.
outdoors	0	9	<i>outside</i> takes its place.	outside	173
people	11	118	<i>folks</i> is used instead.	folks	55
porch	3	30	either the Hawaiian word <i>lanai</i> or <i>veranda</i> is used.	veranda	13
so	56	371	for these two words <i>too</i> is a common substitute.	too	447
very	11	54			457
soon	3	38	another word for which <i>lili more</i> is used.		
stairs	0	12	<i>steps</i> is used instead.	step	49
through	13	91	two words which have been almost replaced by a Hawaiian word, <i>pau</i> .		62
finish	26	48			
to	533	3,709	in forming infinitives, <i>for</i> may be used, as in <i>You get fish for eat</i> , or the sign may be omitted, as in <i>Us goin' play</i> .	for	509
wish	8	61	<i>like</i> is used instead.	like	741
					2,382

lar with the children of Chinese ancestry; also used were *no*, a corruption of the Japanese word *ne* of similar use, and *you know*. Examples: 'You Korean, no?' 'Dry kind, eh?' 'You going home, ha?' 'He come, you know?' instead of such phrases as 'isn't it?' and 'aren't you?'

In considering the words of low frequency in Hawaii, it must be remembered that in many cases the low frequency may be due to the fact that some word of a language other than English is taking its place. One must consider whether this factor enters and to what extent it varies with the racial group and the individual home involved. These words which, although used by kindergarten children in the continental United States, are nevertheless either unknown or, if used, are used much less often by young children in Hawaii are shown in Tables II and III. In Table II the words substituted are shown in the explanatory notes with the frequency of the substitute words if they are English.

The local dialect tends to ignore or confuse inflections. The list of verb forms in Table III indicates those forms most often ignored by the children studied. Usually the present tense absorbs the others. The regularly conjugated tense forms were not listed separately, but they rarely occurred. Of the irregular verbs only 37 different past and past-participial forms were used at all, and with two exceptions their total frequencies did not equal the sum of the frequencies of two such forms, *had* and *saw*, spoken by the continental kindergartners. The two exceptions are *broke* and *went*. *Broke* was used 367 times in Hawaii, while 37 is the comparable Mainland frequency; *break* on the other hand has a frequency of 11 in the Hawaii, 45 in the Kindergarten Union list. *Broke* is regularly used for

the present tense. *Went* with frequencies of 431 to 386 is used as an auxiliary to form a past tense as in 'Sure, you went cry.' This method of expressing the past was especially popular with the Korean and Filipino children. Another method of expressing the past by the use of *been*, as in 'Who been take that?' was less common but occurred 28 times.

TABLE III
Word Forms Used Seldom Because of Failure to Conjugate or to
Make Use of Contractions

A. <i>Verbs</i>				H.	K.		H.	K.		H.	K.
	H.	K.	sat	2	16	didn't	23	237	you'd	1	8
am	80	540	saw	39	683	doesn't	5	39	you'll	1	24
are	56	871	seen	3	66	hadn't	1	17	you've	0	10
blew	0	10	sent	2	13	hasn't	1	38			
bought	3	51	shall	3	70	haven't	0	66	D. <i>Connectives</i>		
brought	8	58	should	3	69	he'd or			about	26	185
built	0	14	sold	0	30	he'll	0	12	above	0	15
came	35	166	took	16	138	here's	4	170	across	1	64
could	34	219	tried	1	18	he's	14	77	after	19	101
did	33	405	was	109	803	I'd	0	40	against	0	8
does	1	71	were	3	184	I'll	29	285	along	0	48
done	2	93	will	17	477	isn't	2	119	also	0	12
fed	1	8	wore	0	7	it's	16	296	and	573	3452
fell	8	54	would	3	124	I've	1	132	at	104	700
flew, flies	1	18				mine's	3	27	because,		
goes	11	96	B. <i>Inflected</i>			she'd or			'cause	50	292
had	59	532	Forms			she'll	0	13	beside	0	9
has	36	401	best	4	36	there's	10	109	both	0	37
hung	0	6	biggest	1	11	they'll	0	14	either	0	14
kept	0	9	geese	0	6	they're	1	44	into	2	67
left	2	25	longer	0	8	wasn't	1	31	maybe	6	55
made	29	410	most	0	8	we'd	3	46	of	59	1119
met	0	9	stories	0	81	we're	2	117	so	56	371
might	3	53				weren't	0	7	to	533	3709
rang	1	7	C. <i>Contractions</i>			we've	0	22	upon	1	34
rode	0	11	aren't	1	39	who's	1	14	without	0	19
sang	1	15	couldn't	1	86	wouldn't	1	39			

Contractions occur much less often in Hawaii, as is shown in Table III. The low frequencies of those formed by combination with *not* is partly due to the use of *no* for *not*, in which case the modifier precedes the verb as in 'He no can go.' Some of the other contractions are less common because of the peculiarity in question structure discussed above.

Prepositions are often omitted and are badly confused when used. Besides those listed under the head of connectives, there are several others

of low frequency in Hawaii. Only *down* and *over* were used more often and *by* as often in Hawaii. The word *over* occurred usually in the phrase *over there* as in 'I go live over there,' where *there* alone would be sufficient and in most cases preferable. Its pronunciation is usually very much slurred, the second syllable of *over* sometimes being completely elided.

The less frequent use of conjunctions is due mainly to shorter sentences but also to a general tendency to omit conjunctions, as for example, the omission of *and* before the last member of a series (as mentioned by Reinecke).

Some differences found in the use of pronouns are due to the children's immature speech. The use of *um*, *mines*, and *me* has been shown in Tables I and II. Another difference is due to a tendency to substitute masculine words for feminine. The difference, however, is not great enough to meet the criterion of the tables. Although the masculine pronouns were used 1,732 times in Hawaii, their combined frequency was 1,650 in the Kindergarten list, while the frequencies of the feminine pronouns were respectively 390 and 1,005, and those for *boy* 557 and 288 as against 180 and 215 for *girl*. The higher frequency for *boy* is due in larger part, however, to its common use as an interjection.

Almost no possessives and comparatively few plural forms were used. Such noun variations were not listed separately if regularly formed. The plural was more often used when irregular in form. In three cases it seemed to be the only form known:

	H.	K.		H.	K.
children	22	92	child	0	11
feet	69	57	foot	3	28
teeth	32	37	tooth	0	9

The vocabulary was checked for other peculiarities of dialect mentioned by Reinecke that might be evidenced by differences in word frequency. *All same*, which he credits probably to the influence of *beche-de-mer*, was a frequent phrase, as in the sentence, 'This all same red.' This use raised the frequency of *same* to nearly twice that found in the Mainland study. Substitution of *what* for the relative *that* raises the frequency of the former word in Hawaii and depresses that of the latter. *Never*, which as Reinecke points out is used as a general negative, has twice as high a frequency in the Hawaii list. *Till* and *until* combined occurred almost as often in Hawaii (H. 37, K. 41) despite the infrequent use of prepositions. The substitution of these words for *to* in space, mentioned by Reinecke, accounted for several occurrences of the two words.

Many of the differences noted in the tables agree with the statements

of Reinecke. Some of the characteristics he gave, such as word order, could not be discovered by comparisons of word frequencies; but many of these are to be found in our records. Others which might be pointed out by this technique, such as the use of *challenge* for playing a matched game, would not be found because of the youth of our subjects. In the list of idiomatic errors included in the more extensive language study³ a few more peculiarities are noted than those uncovered by comparison of word frequency.

House was used in the sense of *our family* or *we* five times, all by children of Japanese ancestry. *Bring it come* and *take it go* were used six and fourteen times respectively. *The* was used for *how* as in *the near you deal* thirty-seven times. Of the redundant uses of *kind*, thirty-six times it was used in combination with *funny* to express the idea of 'queer.' There were other peculiarities noted, but some were of less frequent occurrence and may have been individual idiosyncrasies; in others, it would be difficult to distinguish between errors due to the youth of the subjects and those due to the impact of the local dialect; still other differences were confused by the association with words from another language. Children of every racial antecedent represented used Hawaiian, Japanese, and Chinese words. Filipino, Portuguese, and Korean were used almost entirely by children of their respective racial groups and by those of part Hawaiian ancestry.

WORDS, WORDS, WORDS

There is a *Trav-o-tel* for tourists at West Brush, Colorado.

'The next *chanteaser* at the Savoy-Plaza will have the attractive name of Yvonne Chevalier. Last appearance was in Egypt.' *Omaha World-Herald*, July 26, 1941.

'Tackle the Shoe Problem—Shoes for *spectating*' was the heading of an advertisement of a Department Store, Oct. 11, 1941. It recommended especially the *Timbucktu* brand, 'shiny as a 1942 penny.'

A correspondent inquires concerning the name *sanforize* as applied to pre-shrunk cloth. It comes from the first name of the originator of the shrinking process, Sanford Lockwood Cluett.

A correspondent wishes that *American Speech* would print a short article on names of airplanes, one which would differentiate *airacobras*, wasps, spitfires and the many others that appear in newspaper columns. He would also like a list of names of tanks, if there are such.

'Uncle John Lardner handles all queries of the *sportlorn*.' Lardner's syndicated sports column, Nov. 6, 1941.

'Mr. Shoesmith. . . . A cold, aloof, *nonbonhomous* old blister, he decided, one whose soul his own must always fail to touch.' P. G. Wodehouse, *Sat. Eve. Post*, Nov. 8, 1941, p. 10.

THE GENDER OF ENGLISH LOAN WORDS IN PENNSYLVANIA GERMAN

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IN THE Curme Volume of Linguistic Studies (1931), Professor A. W. Aron presented a study entitled: 'The Gender of English Loan-Words in Colloquial American German.' He stated his aim as follows: 'The purpose of this article is a study of the English words in the colloquial American German of the Middle West' (p. 13). The work is based upon lists of over 3500 words from Iowa, North Dakota, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Indiana, Missouri, Ohio, and Illinois. By the nature of the words which he cites, we may safely assume that they represent mainly nonce loans. He says: 'I include only such words as I have actually heard or can easily imagine being used in an actual situation.' And he seems to have treated Middle Western German as if it were chiefly Standard German, since he found no traces of 'original dialect differences,' as he calls them, but only of 'American German' dialect deviations. The fact that the area studied includes speakers of the most diverse German dialects makes it surprising to see what positive results Professor Aron has obtained. Indeed, he has worked out a rather good analysis of the factors which suffice to account for the gender of English loan words in colloquial American German as it is spoken by the so-called 'second generation' in the Middle West.

Using most of his classifications and some of his terminology, I now propose to apply such an analysis to Pennsylvania German. A number of field records, made by Dr. Lester Seifert and myself in the Pennsylvania German area during the summer of 1940, plainly indicate that the gender of English loan words in Pennsylvania German is determined by the same essential features which Professor Aron has outlined for Middle Western German. But in Pennsylvania German we can give more positive proofs for some of these features than Professor Aron has done for Middle Western German, since a comparison of field records made in the Pennsylvania German area often reveals the original German prototypes upon which the gender of an English loan word is based.

The examples to be cited from our field records will be classified as follows:

1. Nouns that have taken over the gender of the German nouns which they displace.
2. Nouns having a type of suffix that normally characterizes a particular gender in German.

3. Nouns whose gender is determined by the sex of a 'living being,' specifically, a human being—or by 'natural gender' (sic).

4. Nouns that have been given the feminine gender, because the English definite article [ði:/ðə] resembles phonetically the German feminine definite article [di:/də]. This is what Professor Aron calls the 'feminine tendency.'

It is to be noted that, whenever two or three genders are used for the same word, there is usually a regional distribution for each case in Pennsylvania German, and all of the factors outlined above must be examined to determine the reason for the selection of different genders.

(1) In the first classification are included mainly those English loan words whose German prototypes have been attested in Pennsylvania German. The Standard German equivalents of the latter are given, regardless of deviations in meaning.

Eng. Loan Word		Penna. German	St. German
dər ʃbɪgəd	'faucet'	dər grɔ:nə	dial. der Krane
dər kamfəd	'comfort'	dər dəbɪx	der Teppich
dər bo:lsdə	'bolster'	dər 'kɒbəkɪsə	der Kopfkissen
dər gærəd	'attic'	dər ʃbaɪçər	der Speicher
dər hændəl	'handle'	dər ʃdi:l	der Stiel
dər baɪlə	'boiler'	dər kəsəl	der Kessel
dər flo:r	'floor'	dər bodəm	der Boden
dər bærli	'barley'	dər gærʃd	dial. der Gersten
dər ʃbærə	'sparrow'	dər ʃbads	der Spatz,
		dər ʃbærliŋ	Sperling
dər 'bʊlfrəg	'frog'	dər froʃ	der Frosch
dər hi:l	'heel'	dər færʃdə	die Ferse
dər dʃægəd	'vest'	dər brʊʃdlabə	dial. der Brust-
			lappen
dər kærɪdʃ	'carriage'	dər ʃba'dsi:r-	dial. der Spazier-
		'wɔ:rə	wagen
dər bjuro	'bureau'	dər ʃaŋg	der Schrank
dər sɪŋg	'sink'	dər 'wasərʃaŋg	der (Wasser)-
			schränk
di: sɪŋg		di: 'wasərbaŋg	die Wasserbank,
		di: 'wɛʃbaŋg	Wäschbank
dər boɪ/paɪ ¹	'pie'		der Kuchen
di: 'liwɪŋru:m	'living room'	di: ʃdu:b	die Stube
di: gwɪld	'quilt'	di: 'bɛd,dɛg	die Bettdecke

1. Some types of *pie*, e.g. shoofly, are actually called *cake* in the English of some Pennsylvania Germans. The pastry we call *pie* is not known to have existed in southwestern Germany at any period.

Eng. Loan Word		Penna. German	St. German
di: 'si:sɔ:	'seesaw'	di: gaʊndʃ	die Gautsche
di: wɪb	'whip'	di: ge:fəl	die Geissel
di: 'su:b,bo:l	'soup bowl'	di: 'subə,ʃɪsəl	die Schüssel
di: ʃbrɪŋ	'source of a creek'	di: gwɛl	die Quelle
di: grəb²	'crop, harvest'	di: æʀn	die Ernte
dəs pɪɡdɛʀ	'picture'	dəs bɪld	das Bild
dəs bogi	'buggy'	dəs wɛgli	dial. das Wägel- lein, Wägel- chen, etc.
dɛʀ bogi		dɛʀ ʃba'dsi:ʀ- ,wɔ:ʀə	dial. der Spazier- wagen
(di: bogi,	see class 4, below)		

Here also may be mentioned: [dɛʀ gaʊnd/frag] 'dress,' [dɛʀ ʃdo:ʀ] 'store,' [dɛʀ 'budʃɛʀ,ʃab] 'butchershop'; no German word which could contribute to the gender of these words has yet been attested in our Pennsylvania German records, although literary sources might permit us to equate [dɛʀ kɪdəl] with [dɛʀ gaʊnd/frag]. The Pennsylvania German words [dɛʀ mʊmbs] 'mumps' and [dəs kald] 'cold (in the head)' coincide with their English equivalents, but are not loan words (cf. Standard German *der Mumps* and *das Kalt(weh)*). The Pennsylvania German word [di: bodəl] 'bottle' is probably not a loan word either (cf. Standard German *die Buttel*).

(2) Nouns whose gender is determined by the suffix (St. German -ung):³

Feminine [-iŋ]	(St. German -ung)
di: 'si:lɪŋ	'ceiling'
di: 'wɛdɛʀ,bo:ʀdɪŋ	'weatherboarding'
di: mi:dɪŋ	'meeting'
	(St. German -ie)
di: pæʀdɪ	'party'
di: pændrɪ	'pantry'
di: ʃdo:rɪ	'story' (i.e. 'tale')
di: bogi	'buggy' (see also class 1 above)
	(St. German -er)
Masculine [-ɛʀ]	
dɛʀ mɛ'ʃgi:dɛʀ	'mosquito'
dɛʀ kaʊndɛʀ	'counter'
dɛʀ pæʀlɛʀ	'parlor'
dɛʀ bændɛʀ	'binder' (machine)

2. Also masculine; reason unknown.

3. These represent the examples found in our field records; no doubt there are many more.

(3) Nouns whose gender is determined by sex, or 'natural gender':

Masculine: male:	dəɹ pæb	'papa'
	dəɹ dɔ:di	'daddy'
	dəɹ maɪsəɹ	'miser'
	dəɹ bom	'bum'
	dəɹ dræmb	'tramp'
Feminine: female:	di: mæm	'mamma'
	di: mamī	'mamma'

(4) Nouns whose gender is determined by the phonetic similarity of the English definite article [ði:/ðə] with the German feminine definite article [di:/də]:

di: mædʃ	'match'	di: 'di:bo:	'depot'
di: fens	'fence'	di: ʃbri:	'spree'
di: ron	'freshet'	di: blaus	'blouse'
di: grīg	'creek'	di: flu:	'flue'
di: le:g	'lake'	di: su:d	'suit' (clothes)

In most respects, our conclusions regarding the gender of English loan words in Pennsylvania German are the same as those reached by Professor Aron after his investigation of Middle Western German. By field records, it is possible to find many English loan words in regular use side by side with the Pennsylvania German words that are being displaced. The meanings of the resulting word pairs frequently vary somewhat: sometimes the meaning of the two words is identical, e.g. [dəɹ flo:ɹ] 'the floor'—[dəɹ bodəm]; sometimes they have slightly divergent meanings, e.g. [di: wɪb] 'buggy-whip'—[di: ge:ʃəl] 'the lash'; sometimes the English words are associated with two different German words, usually in different localities, e.g. Berks County has [dəɹ paɪg] 'highway'—[dəɹ we:g], Lehigh County has [di: paɪg]—[di: ʃdro:s]; and sometimes the English word has the meanings of two German words, e.g. [di: 'su:b,bo:l] 'soup bowl'—[di: 'subə,ʃɪsəl] and [di: (or dəɹ) 'subə,dələ] 'soup plate.' Moreover, it has been indicated that in various regions the same loan word may be given different genders for different reasons, e.g. [dəɹ bogi] 'buggy'—[dəɹ ʃba'dsi:ɹ,wɔ:ɹə], [dəs bogi]—[dəs wəgli], [di: bogi]—[-i] suffix. All such variations and modifications are conceivable when one considers the corresponding deviations between English and German, between old-fashioned and modern culture.

Our field records do not furnish enough examples, as yet, to demonstrate sufficiently the determination of gender by means of suffixes, but several gender-determining suffixes have been pointed out, e.g. [-əɹ] masculine (chiefly with agent nouns), and [-iŋ] feminine. Of great significance, how-

ever, is one other factor which Professor Aron pointed out: the phonetic similarity of the English definite article with the German feminine definite article. Thus, in another way, gender is determined for those English loan words which designate something new, or with which no known German equivalent is associated—semantically or morphologically.

The genders of some English loan words in Pennsylvania German have no apparent explanation, e.g. the rare usage [dæx grab] 'crop,' and in other instances we are limited to conjecture, such as equating [dæx we:sd/bæsg/sæg] 'the blouse' with [dæx kɪdəl]. We assume, with some degree of optimism, that future field records will further clarify these matters and provide more examples of the linguistic phenomena here described.

'BUCK'

Buck, as the name of a small object once used in poker to identify the dealer (hence the expression 'to pass the buck') and as a slang name for a dollar, is of obscure origin. The DAE treats the word in these senses as two etymologically different words, the evidence for the first starting in 1872, for the second in 1896. The following quotation supplies earlier evidence for the first use, and seems, in its play on words, to provide earlier evidence for the second use too:

1865 *Weekly New Mexican* (Santa Fe)
14 July 1/3 They draw at the commissary,
and at poker after they have passed the
'buck.'

No positive evidence has come to light to support the suggestion that *buck* is derived, through a species of popular logic, from *sawbuck*, a name given a ten-dollar bill in allusion to the X shape of the car-

penter's sawbuck. Evidence for *sawbuck*, however, precedes the first evidence for *buck* by some fifteen years:

1850 *Knickerbocker Magazine* xxxvi. 297
I want forty dollars for the enclosed, . . .
and if you'll send me the two double 'saw-
bucks,' you shall have the rest.

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'BLEENIE' AND 'SCREW JAY'

Whether the word exists elsewhere, I do not know, but in Dubuque, Iowa, one occasionally hears *bleenie* used for 'frankfurter.' Another word which I have never heard outside Dubuque (or, more exactly, Dubuque County) is *screw jay*, used derisively by boys while playing marbles. To shoot *screw jay* is to dribble the marble or taw ineffectively instead of propelling it with speed and accuracy.

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PRONUNCIATION IN DOWNSTATE NEW YORK (I)

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THE PRESENT study covers the speech of the nine downstate counties omitted from my previous survey.¹ The material consists of notes which I have made on the speech of 420 persons who have always lived in the downstate counties and who are, in my opinion, representative of the natural speech of the area.² About half are Cornell undergraduates; the others, whom I have interviewed in their homes, include a considerable number whose ancestors have lived in the downstate area for some generations.

Subdivision of the area begins with the five counties which comprise New York City itself. Directly east of New York City, on Long Island, lies Nassau County, which is almost completely suburban, and most like the city itself in its speech. These six counties represent the main type of downstate speech. Suffolk County, which lies east of Nassau and comprises the eastern half of Long Island, is largely rural. As we shall see, its speech has numerous features which set it off from the rest of the downstate area; the historic roots of Suffolk speech are in Connecticut, from which the earliest settlers came during the Dutch rule of New Amsterdam and the Hudson valley. Westchester County, which lies on the east bank of the Hudson, directly north of New York City, and Rockland County, which lies on the west bank, across the river from Westchester, are border-line areas which show some trace of upstate speech. Distribution of the 420 speakers is as follows: New York City 154, Nassau, 68, Suffolk 101, Westchester 67, Rockland 30.

I. STRESSED FRONT VOWELS

The vowel [i] differs slightly from upstate [i]. Babbitt's statement, in 1896, that [i] tended to glide from a high-central or mid-central position³ is still true, though the glide is not now very noticeable. In narrower

1. 'Pronunciation in Upstate New York,' *American Speech*, 10: 107-112, 208-212, 292-297; 11: 69-77, 142-144, 307-313; 12: 122-127.

2. I have excluded all speakers with foreign-language backgrounds; for a survey of one of these foreign-language groups, see my 'Jewish Dialect and New York Dialect,' *American Speech*, 7: 321-326.

3. E. H. Babbitt, 'The English of the Lower Classes in New York City and Vicinity,' *Dialect Notes*, 1: 461.

transcription we may record the downstate glide as [ii] or [əi], the upstate glide as [iɪ]. A few variations occur in the use of [i]. My records show⁴ [i] 1, [ɪ] 26, in *zero*. For *creek*, [i] predominates over [ɪ] by about two to one, in roughly the upstate proportion.⁵ Some speakers change *initiate* and *Patricia* to [ɪ'nɪʃɪet] and [pə'trɪʃə]. *Been* shows [bin] 3, [bɪn] 125, [bən] 3, the last being much more common upstate.⁶ Other variations include [i] 27, [aɪ] 10, in *either*; [i] 12, [aɪ] 10, in *neither*; [i] 9, [ɛ] 75, in *deaf*.

The centralization of [ɪ], which is common in upstate speech,⁷ and which Babbitt considered common in New York City,⁸ is now less striking in downstate speech. *Children*, *clear*, *dreary*, and *wish* have [ɪ] almost universally; the few instances of [i] occur in Westchester, on the upstate border. Variations include *stirrup* [stɪrəp] 8, [stīrəp] 2, [stērəp] 1, [stərəp] 20; *syrup* [sɪrəp] 66, [sīrəp] 8, [sērəp] 3, [sērəp] 1, [sərəp] 12.⁹ Variation between [ɪ] and [ɛ] is somewhat less frequent than in upstate speech.¹⁰ The verb *hinder* always has [ɪ]; *forget*, *general*, and *kettle* always have [ɛ]. *Get* has [ɪ] 4, [ɛ] 59; *inherent*, [ɪn'hɪrənt] 15, [ɪn'hērənt] 18, the latter influenced, perhaps, by the more familiar *inherit*. *Rinse* has [rɪns] 105; [rens] 8; the forms in [-ntʃ] and [-nz] do not occur. *Since* has [sɪns] 152, *until* [ən'tɪl] 49; with one instance each of [sens] and [ən'tel], both from Suffolk County.

The vowel [e] is more noticeably diphthongal, and often lower, than in upstate speech;¹¹ in narrower transcription it might be written [eɪ] or [eɪ̯]. Variations between [e] and [ɛ] include *again* [e] 9, [ɛ] 117; *against* [e] 4, [ɛ] 9; *edge* [e] 1, from Suffolk County, [ɛ] 189; *eggs* [e] 12, all from Suffolk, [ɛ] 53; *keg* [e] 4, [ɛ] 72, [æ] 1; *leg* [e] 13, of which 12 are from Suffolk, [ɛ] 66. Suffolk's use of [e] is thus parallel to upstate speech.¹² *Drain* always has [e], *measure* always [ɛ]. Other variations of [e] include *vase* [ves] 48, [vez] 44, [vaz] 3; *fragrant* [frɛgrənt] 24, [frægrənt] 10; the intermediate [frɛgrənt], which occurs occasionally in upstate speech,¹³ does not occur here. *Anchor*, *brag*, *drag*, and *crag*s normally have [æ],

4. In this article, a number immediately following phonetic symbols is to be interpreted to mean that my records show the indicated number of persons to have used the indicated pronunciation in my hearing.

5. See *American Speech*, 10: 292.

6. *Ibid.*, 10: 292-293.

7. *Ibid.*, 10: 209-210.

8. See *Dialect Notes*, 1: 461.

9. See *American Speech*, 10: 209-210.

10. *Ibid.*, 10: 293.

11. *Ibid.*, 10: 293; *Dialect Notes*, 1: 461.

12. See *American Speech*, 10: 293.

13. *Ibid.*

but the records show one instance of [kregz] in Suffolk County, as in upstate speech.¹⁴

The vowel [ɛ] is less often centralized than in upstate speech or the downstate speech of Babbitt's time.¹⁵ Occasional centralization occurs in *berries* [ɛ] 25, [ɛ̃] 3; *bury* [ɛ] 78, [ɛ̃] 11, [ə] 2; *terrible* [ɛ] 11, [ɛ̃] 1; *wealthy* [ɛ] 14, [ɛ̃] 2. Table I shows the variations between [ɛ] and [æ]:

TABLE I

Word	[ɛ]	[æ]
apparent	5	7
apparently	0	12
barrel	2	198
barrier	0	14
careful	16	18
careless	24	4
carrots	1	183
carry	3	119
catch	18	74
gather	0	14
kerosene	7	56
narrow	3	186
parents	10	9
various	9	5

In addition, *barrel* has [ɛ̃] 1, [a] 6; *carrots* [a] 1, *narrow* [a] 1. The table shows a much stronger preference for [æ] than in upstate speech.¹⁶ The vowel [æ] is sometimes relatively high and tense, but it no longer tends as strongly toward [ɛ] as in Babbitt's time.¹⁷ Quite recently, moreover, many speakers, in attempting to avoid the high, tense variety, have produced an excessively low variety which is virtually identical with [a].¹⁸ The shift toward [a] is not limited to the traditional 'broad a' words in Table II, but extends also to the miscellaneous words in Table III.

Before [l], in *balance*, *calendar*, *salad*, and *valley*, the shift to [a] is confined to Suffolk County, which, in this respect, agrees more closely with upstate than with downstate speech. In *rather*, Suffolk shows [æ] 13, [a] 9, [ɑ] 8, again in fairly close agreement with upstate usage;¹⁹ if we subtract these figures from the totals, we find an even stronger preference for [ɑ] in the rest of the downstate area. *Colorado* is always [kalə'ɑdo], though it rhymes with *shadow* in Colorado state songs. *Lilacs* shows [laɪləks] 15, [laɪləks] 5, but no instances of the upstate [laɪləks]. *Program* has [progræm] 11, [progrəm] 5. In addition to the forms in the table,

14. *Ibid.*, 10: 294.

15. See *Dialect Notes*, 1: 461.

16. See *American Speech*, 10: 294-295.

17. See *Dialect Notes*, 1: 461.

18. See Lois Strong, 'Voyelles et Consonnes de New-York,' *Revue de Phonétique*, 5: 74.

19. See *American Speech*, 10: 296.

TABLE II

Word	[æ]	[a]	[ɑ]
after	212	13	3
afternoon	84	4	0
answer	31	2	0
answered	33	0	0
ask	28	6	1
asked	129	6	0
aunt	66	7	11
basket	177	4	0
bath	28	2	0
branch	47	1	0
calf	13	0	0
can't	11	3	0
cast	13	0	0
castle	10	0	0
chance	12	2	0
class	54	4	0
command	18	1	0
dance	18	3	0
demand	16	0	0
example	9	2	0
fast	11	3	0
glance	33	4	0
glass	12	4	1
glasses	36	3	0
grasp	9	2	0
grass	37	3	0
half	50	8	0
last	93	11	3
laugh	18	9	1
laughter	11	3	0
master	19	2	0
pass	16	2	0
passed	97	3	1
past	23	3	1
pasture	10	0	0
path	24	1	0
paths	49	3	0
photograph	92	3	0
plant	9	1	0
planted	13	0	0
task	10	1	0
transition	11	2	0

khaki has [kaɪkɪ] 7, *talcum* [tɒlkəm] 1. Since [a] occurs more frequently before [m] and [n], as in *abandon*, *cramp*, *damp*, *hand*, *land*, *man*, and *stand*, than in the traditional 'broad a' words, and since there is no uniformity of trend toward [a] in any category, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that the 'broad a' category has no validity in downstate speech, and that [a] is merely a lowered variety of the [æ] phoneme.

II. STRESSED BACK VOWELS

In the downstate area, as in other parts of the country, [ɑ] is highly

TABLE III

Word	[æ]	[a]	[ɑ]
abandon	69	8	0
balance	61	4	0
barren	36	1	0
calendar	175	5	0
cramp	12	6	0
crash	8	3	0
damp	10	5	0
glad	6	5	0
hand	11	7	0
khaki	39	12	90
land	7	8	0
man	5	11	0
pajamas	4	1	21
parish	19	1	0
parrot	71	3	0
rather	42	45	80
salad	47	5	0
stamp (verb)	78	2	2
stand	5	5	0
talcum	24	2	0
talent	37	0	0
valley	54	9	0
value	10	2	0
wheelbarrow	86	9	3

unstable. When followed by orthographic *r*, it is long; when no [r] is pronounced, it is still longer. This long [ɑ:] tends, moreover, to be intensified and retracted until it acquires the essential value of [v:], though without appreciable aid of lip-rounding. In striking contrast to the shift toward [ɑ:] in eastern New England and parts of upstate New York,²⁰ the use of [v:] links downstate speech with that of the lower Atlantic and Gulf states. Table IV illustrates the extent of the shift:

TABLE IV

Word	[ɑ:]	[v:]
barn	90	15
car	26	1
dark	13	8
farm	17	9
garden	11	8
hardly	9	4
harvest	12	3
heart	8	12
large	48	10
march	28	5
regard	12	3
remark	21	3
sharp	34	5
started	142	7

20. *Ibid.*, 11: 68-69.

When no *r* follows the vowel, [a] and [ɔ] are more common than [ɒ]. In addition to the normal [ɔ] there is an over-tense, over-retracted variety, recorded here as [ɔɾ], which is distinct both from [o] and the Southern [ɔʊ]. Table v shows the distribution before voiceless stops:

TABLE V

Word	[a]	[ɒ]	[ɔ]	[ɔɾ]
autumn	0	0	10	3
bottom	20	0	0	0
caught	0	0	11	2
chocolate	16	20	61	1
cottage	36	0	0	0
daughter	0	1	83	0
fox	13	1	0	0
hot	79	0	0	0
mock	50	1	0	0
not	18	3	0	0
pocket	36	0	0	0
rock	17	1	0	0
shock	13	0	0	0
talk	0	0	24	3
thought	0	3	43	5
walk	0	5	131	10
watch	79	5	0	0
water	0	7	250	23
what	57	0	0	0

Except for the presence of the retracted [ɔɾ], and the absence of the fronted [a], the distribution is much the same as in upstate speech.²¹ Table vi shows the distribution before voiced stops:

TABLE VI

Word	[a]	[ɒ]	[ɔ]	[ɔɾ]
body	16	1	0	0
catalogue	130	22	35	0
dialogue	29	8	5	0
dog	2	32	167	5
fog	40	0	0	0
foggy	124	8	1	0
frog	120	9	1	0
God	31	4	2	0
goddess	11	0	0	0
gods	12	2	0	0
hogs	60	3	4	0
log	198	27	20	0
modern	12	1	0	0
object (noun)	31	0	0	0
odd	42	0	0	0
probably	30	0	0	0
prod	24	0	0	0

[dag] occurs only in Suffolk County; [dɔɾg] only in New York City.

21. *Ibid.*, 11: 69.

The other -og words show a uniform preponderance of [a], in contrast to the upstate preponderance of [ɔ] in *catalogue*, *dialogue*, and *log*.²² Upstate speech also shows a preference for [ɔ] in *God*; in the other words, downstate and upstate agree. Table VII shows the distribution before voiceless fricatives:

TABLE VII

Word	[a]	[ɒ]	[ɔ]	[ɔɪ]
across	0	2	118	4
boss	0	0	12	5
chaos	18	1	2	0
coffee	0	11	97	0
colossal	31	0	0	0
cost	0	4	32	5
cough	0	15	102	3
cross	0	7	165	5
faucet	5	3	24	0
froth	0	0	10	1
hospital	43	0	1	0
loft	0	11	35	0
lofty	0	3	9	1
loss	0	1	15	0
lost	0	6	51	0
off	0	5	66	5
offer	0	0	9	2
office	1	18	99	0
often	0	1	25	3
ostrich	33	9	38	0
possible	36	0	0	0
sauce	0	0	11	0
saucer	0	5	58	1
sausage	0	18	96	0
soft	0	2	21	8
trough	0	2	18	0
wash	209	15	15	0
Washington	10	2	2	0

Chaos also has [keos] 2, [keəs] 1. *Trough* has [trɒf] 11, [trɒf] 2, [trɔθ] 7, [trau] 5, [trau] 4. Neither *wash* nor *Washington* has [-ɹf-]. Except for [ɔɪ], the distribution is much the same as in upstate speech.²³

Table VIII shows the distribution before nasals. The variation in *calm* places it in the same category as the -ar words. In addition to the forms shown in the table, *donkey* occurs 23 times as [dɒŋkɪ]. In upstate speech, both *gone* and *gong* show a strong preference for [ɔ]. Except for the use of [ɔɪ], upstate and downstate generally agree on the other words.²⁴

Table IX shows the distribution before [l]. In *doll* and *dissolve*, [ɒ] is confined to Suffolk County; Suffolk also has one instance of [dɒlfɪn] for *dolphin*. In upstate speech, [gɒlf] is common for *golf*. Otherwise, except

22. *Ibid.*, 11: 70.

23. *Ibid.*, 11: 71.

24. *Ibid.*, 11: 72.

TABLE VIII

Word	[a]	[ɒ]	[ɔ]	[ɔɪ]
along	0	0	49	3
calm	36	6	2	0
coupon	40	0	0	0
dawn	0	1	13	2
donkey	36	1	0	0
drawn	0	0	6	5
fond	27	0	0	0
gaunt	0	8	17	0
gone	1	15	17	2
gong	31	5	2	0
haunted	3	10	87	0
honest	21	0	0	0
launch	10	8	30	0
laundry	49	32	108	0
long	0	0	27	7
on	129	3	0	0
pond	46	0	0	0
quantity	16	2	0	0
song	0	6	23	1
strong	0	2	21	2
swamp	42	2	0	0
swan	16	1	0	0
thermometer	146	0	0	0
throng	6	8	12	0
undaunted	1	2	41	0
wander	42	0	1	0
wanted	108	11	0	0
wrong	0	0	13	5

TABLE IX

Word	[a]	[ɒ]	[ɔ]	[ɔɪ]
all	0	0	11	11
college	62	0	0	0
column	42	0	0	0
crawl	0	0	11	1
dissolve	60	2	0	0
doll	74	1	0	0
dolphin	93	6	2	0
follow	16	0	0	0
golf	73	1	0	0
holiday	22	0	0	0
involve	70	0	0	0
knowledge	12	0	0	0
polish	16	0	0	0
politics	24	0	0	0
quality	19	0	0	0
resolve	10	0	0	0
revolve	58	4	0	0
small	0	0	23	6
squalid	10	0	0	0
swallow	10	0	0	0
wall	0	0	69	7

for [ɔɹ], the two areas are in substantial agreement.²⁵ Table x shows the distribution before [r] and a following vowel:

TABLE X

Word	[a]	[ɒ]	[ɔ]
authority	79	16	18
borrow	137	2	3
coral	44	8	47
correspond	52	2	4
corridor	106	20	15
Dorothy	34	2	0
Florida	109	7	4
foreign	94	7	7
forest	228	27	19
horizontal	31	2	2
horrible	79	3	5
horrid	195	10	7
horrified	21	2	1
horror	65	8	3
moral	79	17	35
moralist	11	2	3
morally	11	0	6
oracle	2	0	8
orange	187	2	3
orator	63	19	62
origin	12	1	2
quarry	116	6	2
sorrow	28	3	0
sorry	64	2	4
tomorrow	100	4	2
torrent	161	15	23
warrant	80	6	5

In addition, *quarry* has [kwɛrɪ] 6, [kwæɪrɪ] 5, [kwærɪ] 1. *Quarrel* has [kwærəl] 10, [kwærɪ] 17, [kwa:l] 4, [kwɔrl] 1. The strong preference for [a] in this category is in striking contrast to the upstate preference for [ɔ];²⁶ only in *borrow*, *quarrel*, *sorrow*, *sorry*, and *tomorrow* does upstate speech show a preference for [a], and even in these words the preference is less strongly marked than in downstate speech. In this category the nine downstate counties do not form a complete dialectal unit, but the preference for [a] extends part way up the Hudson valley, on both sides of the river.

A few miscellaneous variants remain. *Closet* has [a] 33, [ɒ] 1, the last from Suffolk County. *Father* has [a] 18, [ɒ] 20, a distribution similar to that of *calm* and the *-ar* words. *Because* has [ɔ] 67, [ɔɹ] 1, [ʌ] 15; *law* [ɔ] 10, [ɔɹ] 2, [ɔɹ] 8, [ɔɹə] 2; *laws* [ɔ] 4, [ɔɹ] 3, [ɔɹ] 8, [ɔɹə] 8; *saw* [ɔ] 35, [ɔɹ] 2, [ɔɹ] 3; *moths* [ɔ] 64. Several contrasts between upstate and downstate

25. *Ibid.*, 11: 72-73.

26. *Ibid.*, 11: 73-74.

use of the [a-ɔ] variants help to give each area its distinctive quality: the use of [a] upstate and of [ɔ-] downstate; the greater use of [a] downstate; the greater use of [ɔ] and the somewhat greater use of [ɒ] upstate.

The vowel [o] is somewhat more noticeably diphthongal, and somewhat further forward in its placement, than in upstate speech, but not as far forward as the extreme types heard in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and parts of southern England. In narrower transcription it might be recorded as [ou] or [o-u]. The use of [o] before *r* is less frequent than in upstate speech,²⁷ as Table XI demonstrates:

TABLE XI

Word	[ɔ]	[ɔ-]	[o]
before	41	2	0
board	59	0	2
coarse	67	0	0
course	122	0	0
court	73	0	0
door	104	0	0
floor	116	0	2
force	30	0	1
forty-four (first word)	65	0	0
forty-four (second word)	63	0	2
four	15	0	0
fourteen	38	0	0
hoarse	26	0	0
horses	143	0	0
more	31	0	3
morning	16	1	0
mourn	18	2	1
porch	171	0	2
poured	73	0	3
roar	78	0	1
store	187	0	2
story	110	0	1

The instances of [o] in *board* are from Rockland County; those in *floor*, from Suffolk. *Toward* has [tɔrd] 22, [tɔ:d] 12, [twɔrd] 6, [tuwɔrd] 2, [twɔ:d] 1, [tuwɔ:d] 1. Though *forty*, *horses*, and *morning* do not belong in the same category which historically has [o] before *r*, they are included for comparison with other dialects in which they occasionally acquire [o]. When not followed by *r*, [o] is relatively stable. An important local variation occurs, however, in *won't*, which has [o] 42, [u] 68, [ʊ] 4, [ʌ] 1, the last two variants being confined to Suffolk County. *Moment* occasionally has [ʊ] instead of [o].

The vowel [u] is sometimes further forward in its placement than in upstate speech, though rarely as far forward as in the speech of Philadelphia, Baltimore, or the Southern states. The vowels [ʊ] and [ʌ] are

27. *Ibid.*, 11: 142.

about the same as in upstate speech; [ʌ] is nearer the back than the central position. Table XII illustrates variations among these vowels:

TABLE XII

Word	[u]	[u-]	[ʊ]
aloof	28	2	1
bosom	10	0	39
broom	30	0	0
broomstick	16	0	0
butcher	0	0	12
coop	37	0	1
cuckoo	42	1	43
cushion	0	0	18
hoof	4	0	62
hoofs	8	0	31
living room	28	0	2
noon	16	1	0
roof	203	9	29
roofs	16	0	2
room	143	6	14
root	82	0	5
roots	13	2	3
soon	159	4	21
soot	25	0	102

Gums also shows one instance of [gʊmz] from Westchester County; 15 of the 21 instances of [sʊn] are from Suffolk. *Bosom* and *soot* each show one instance of [ʌ]. Upstate speech shows a stronger preference for [u] in *bosom*, *cuckoo*, and *soot*; otherwise the two areas are in substantial agreement on this variation.²⁸ Minor variants of [ʌ] include *compass* [ʌ] 10, [ɑ] 5; *grovel* [ʌ] 6, [ɑ] 6; *just* [ʌ] 65, [ɛ] 6, [ɪ] 3. *Wasn't* is always [wʌznt] 49. Table XIII shows the variations in the 'long u' words:

TABLE XIII

Word	[u]	[u-]	[ɪu]	[ju]
assume	12	2	2	2
attitude	28	0	0	1
avenue	15	0	0	18
due	22	0	0	0
duty	51	0	1	3
enthusiasm	6	0	0	6
knew	21	0	2	4
new	8	0	1	9
produce	11	1	0	1
student	36	1	2	1
suited	14	0	0	1
tune	16	1	8	3

Tune also occurs once as [tɕu-n]. *During* has [ʊ] 19, [ju] 1; *endurance* [ʊ] 5, [ju] 9; *mature* [tʊ] 6, [tɪʊ] 4, [tju] 1, [tʃʊ] 2; *educated* [dju] 1,

28. *Ibid.*, 11: 143.

[dʒu] 17; *tremendous* [dəs] 28, [dʒəs] 4. Upstate speech uses [ɪu], [ɪʊ], [ju], and [jʊ] less frequently.²⁹ Table xiv shows miscellaneous words in which [j] is sometimes included, sometimes omitted. In *column*, *coupon*, and *percolator*, there is, of course, no historical justification for [j]; nor is there for [ʒ] in *tremendous*. In *accurate* and *spaniel*, loss of [j] is confined to Suffolk County.

TABLE XIV

Word	[j] included	[j] omitted
accurate	31	2
column	2	40
coupon	21	19
figure	15	0
particular	81	2
percolator	58	84
regulate	38	0
spaniel	127	3

(To be continued)

29. *Ibid.*, 11: 309-310.

COMMERCIAL JOTTINGS

The following trade-term coinages appeared in advertising matter from department stores in the months of August, September, and October, 1941.

Sweater Shop *Softies*—Your favorite sweaters are back at Magee's.

Tweeduroy clothing includes *Nickees* for boys 6 to 12.

Softie calf Paramount shoes—Tender as a maiden's blush.

Duralace Kantrun Hosiery by *Glorigold*. *Over-Nee*—Hosiery for the small miss.

Misses' Crepe Sole Oxfords—This easy-going *sportster* has captured the hearts of women and girls.

The *Zipliner* does Double Duty as the perfect all-weather coat.

California *Versatogs*. Distinctive styles, skirts, jackets, slacks.

Petit  Debs—Shoe Styles of Tomorrow of antique calf.

Fly-Aways—Gayest hats of the season in the wind, for fall.

Slendikins—A Will-O-The-Wisp Garment to keep you slim.

Careerists Coat, specially priced.

Majorette Boots—high tasselled.

For Safer, Faster, Easier Shopping Use *Charg-A-Plate*.

Lido blouses are of *luxable* fine rayons and poplins.

Here are a few of the newly coined trade-names of articles offered for sale in drugstores in the autumn of 1941.

Use *Sanifoot* for Athlete's Foot.

Get a sweet tooth for *Chocloate*. Eat all you can these warm days in the form of chocolate covered ice cream bars.

Lechler's *Velvatize* removes unwanted hair. For lovelier firmer hands use *Digitate*, the Amazing Three Minute Hand Treatment.

M.B.

The following are from advertisements of apparel for girls of high school or college age.

New Shoes In. Low-Heelers for *tween-teeners*.

Styles for Young America geared to the *twixteens*.

Teen age hats now on sale.

Teenage apparel of all types. Third Floor. H.M.S.

NOTES ON THE LENGTH OF VOWELS (V)

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IN THE fourth article of this series¹ I have reported the results of a direct scrutiny of the durational values found for the word *food* and for its component sounds in a series of sentences designed to bring this word under different accentual conditions.²

Statistical treatment of the measurements obtained in this series of experiments permits something to be said (1) as to the variability of performance for a single speaker, and (2) as to the effect of 'tempo' upon the duration of the word *food* and its vowel.

In Table 1 are presented for each sentence the several values of the total duration (*t*) of *food* and the duration of [f], of [u], and of [d]. For each average or mean value I give the standard deviation of the series (σ) expressed in units of .01 seconds, *e.g.*, σ 2.33 means a standard deviation of .0233 seconds. For the vowel [u] I give in addition the standard error of the mean (σ_M). This figure may be interpreted thus: the chances are something like 68 in 100 that the mean value given does not diverge from the true mean of a very large number of measurements by more than the value indicated for σ_M . For example, for A1 the obtained mean .274 sec. probably does not vary from the true mean by more than $\pm .0038$ seconds.

The crude measure of variability of performance is the range, from minimum to maximum. The most it can be said to indicate here is that there is indeed considerable variability of performance in the utterances compared. One thing appears from a comparison of the values for minima and maxima of the vowel [u], namely, that there is no over-lap between the length of this vowel when full grade (A1-B2 inclusive) and its length when reduced grade (A3-B4 inclusive); that is, full grade vocalism is discrete from reduced grade vocalism in duration. The values given for

1. *American Speech*, October 1940, pp. 204-207.

2. The sentences were:

Series A, rising intonation.

- A1. Did you bring the food?
- A2. What? No food?
- A3. Where is the food wé bought?
- A4. Isn't there even any food for the cat?

Series B, falling intonation.

- B1. Now let's have the food.
- B2. Who cares anything about the food?
- B3. We have the food wé bought.
- B4. There isn't even any food for the cat.

TABLE I

		Minimum	Mean	Maximum	Range	SD[σ]	[σ _M]
t	A ₁	.421	.473	.562	.141	3.12	
	B ₁	.410	.485	.560	.150	3.40	
	A ₂	.417	.492	.566	.149	3.33	
	B ₂	.411	.488	.568	.157	4.03	
	A ₃	.276	.299	.348	.072	1.68	
	B ₃	.255	.306	.374	.119	2.60	
	A ₄	.247	.320	.416	.169	3.67	
	B ₄	.251	.322	.383	.132	2.48	
f	A ₁	.082	.106	.132	.050	1.20	
	B ₁	.063	.090	.128	.065	1.71	
	A ₂	.095	.127	.191	.096	1.97	
	B ₂	.063	.097	.130	.067	1.69	
	A ₃	.065	.080	.101	.036	0.88	
	B ₃	.055	.084	.110	.055	1.56	
	A ₄	.058	.097	.137	.079	1.71	
	B ₄	.064	.097	.121	.057	1.50	
u	A ₁	.239	.274	.331	.092	2.33	.0038
	B ₁	.247	.298	.348	.101	2.63	.0042
	A ₂	.240	.278	.330	.090	2.24	.0036
	B ₂	.235	.295	.349	.114	2.72	.0043
	A ₃	.127	.161	.191	.067	1.28	.0021
	B ₃	.130	.166	.195	.065	1.39	.0023
	A ₄	.112	.154	.193	.081	1.56	.0026
	B ₄	.128	.161	.189	.061	1.25	.0023
d	A ₁	.066	.093	.142	.076	1.51	
	B ₁	.076	.097	.118	.042	1.17	
	A ₂	.059	.087	.113	.054	1.13	
	B ₂	.077	.096	.130	.053	1.26	
	A ₃	.036	.058	.092	.056	1.08	
	B ₃	.041	.056	.077	.036	0.99	
	A ₄	.039	.069	.118	.079	2.15	
	B ₄	.044	.064	.097	.053	1.53	

sigma (SD) and for the standard error of the mean are more precise indicators of the adequacy of the data and the reliability of the values obtained.

But there are other observations which can be drawn from my data to exhibit the variations in the values obtained, in ways intelligible to non-statisticians. For example, I made 36 recordings of the sentence: 'Did you bring the food?' The mean value of [u] for the whole series was .274 seconds. Statistical procedure indicates that this mean value is probably not more than $\pm .0038$ seconds away from the true mean of a very large number of measurements. But if I had contented myself with the first six measurements I made, I should have found a mean of .264 seconds: the second six meas-

urements averaged .291, the third .290, the fourth .260, the fifth .264, and the sixth .275. Only the last six measurements taken by themselves yield an average value nearly identical with the mean of the entire series of measurements. Statistically, of course, 36 measurements are only twice as reliable as six measurements, but the foregoing figures indicate how important that difference can be. It is possible that a few measurements may yield the same average as that given by a much larger number of measurements, but the chances are against their doing so in experiments of this nature. This sort of variability is found equally in measurements of lexical pronunciation. I made a total of 59 measurements of the lexical pronunciation of the word *food*, for which I found a mean duration for [u] of .333 seconds. The standard deviation (σ) of this series is 2.45, and the standard error of the mean is .0032 seconds, *i.e.*, the obtained mean probably does not vary from the true mean by more than $\pm .0032$ sec. The tempo of utterance in this experiment was controlled by metronome, and the measurements were made over a period of several months, never more than five on any one day. But if I had taken the first six of these measurements alone I should have found a mean duration for [u] of .323 seconds; the second six measurements would have given me .324, the third .329, the fourth .323, the fifth .339, the sixth .349, the seventh .351, the eighth .391, the ninth .324, and the final group of five measurements .303. Only the third group approaches the value obtained for the mean of the whole series. I conclude that the variability of my performance in uttering such words for experimental purposes is such that only a series large enough to afford a distribution approaching that of the normal curve is adequate to yield a reliable mean value for the duration of the vowel involved. Practically, this means in general that I must have about 25 measurements as a minimum number; usually 30 to 35 yield a smoother distribution. I doubt that I am any less well organized nervously than the normal 'subject' used in phonetic experiments, and I know that I am less subject to adventitious interference because of the apparatus involved than almost any 'subject' who is not himself an experimental technician. I believe, therefore, that mean durational values are only adequately reliable when they rest on a series of measurements large enough to satisfy decent statistical requirements for the reliability of sampling.

The 'tempo' at which a given sound is uttered is the reciprocal of the duration of that sound: that is, if I produce the vowel [u] in .333 seconds, I have produced it at the 'rate' of 3 per second. If I produce the word *food* in .473 seconds, I have uttered this syllable at the 'rate' of 2.11 syllables per second. If I proceed to infer that, since *food* comprises three speech sounds, I have uttered these sounds at the 'rate' of 3 in .473 seconds, or $.473 \div 3$

or .158 seconds per sound, or 6.33 sounds per second, I am quite obviously engaged in useless mathematics: this sort of statement about the 'tempo' in terms of sounds per second can tell me nothing at all about the duration of any one of these sounds individually, and hence equally, nothing about the 'tempo' of any one of the component sounds. This statement can be verified by a glance at Table I above.

In an attempt to discover any possible relationships which might exist between the durations of any two of the three elements in the word *food*, I have subjected the various series of obtained values for the durations of these sounds to statistical treatment. In Table II I give the values found for the coefficient of correlation (*r*) for these comparisons. The first three columns are pertinent here; the fourth and fifth will be discussed later.

TABLE II
Coefficients of correlation

	f : d : u	f : u	d : u	T : t	PEr
A ₁	.03	.13	.16	.56	7.059
B ₁	.16	.05	.16	.53	6.733
A ₂	.01	-.19	.30	.48	5.432
B ₂	.39	.35	.10	.16	1.521
A ₃	-.19	-.17	.18	.07	0.617
B ₃	.01	-.02	.21	.05	0.411
A ₄	.16	.31	.12	.01	0.091
B ₄	-.01	.06	-.09	.13	1.083

It may not be otiose first to explain that a coefficient of correlation of 1.00 indicates perfect interdependence of the two factors compared, while a coefficient of 0.00 indicates no interdependence whatever. A negative coefficient points to an inverse relationship. Almost any set of numbers, if compared with any other set, will show some kind of coefficient of correlation; the problem is to interpret this coefficient in our own study, first as to its probable significance or lack of significance, and second as to what relationship causes the correlation. In some fields, for instance in Psychology and in Education, it would be customary to require a coefficient of at least .40 if the sample measured has 40 items, or .42 if the sample has 30 items, before a significant relationship would be inferred. It does not follow from this that we must have coefficients of this order before we may infer a significant relationship, nor does it follow that a coefficient even of .50 must, of necessity, indicate some interdependence of the two factors. We have here no precedents to guide us, and must be guided in our interpretation of *r* by what we can learn otherwise from our data.

One further comment on the significance of the statistical procedure here used seems in order. The values for the standard deviation (σ), and

for the standard error of the mean (σ_M) given in Table 1 indicate something about the accuracy with which the measurements have been made, but they do not indicate anything about the correctness of the assumptions upon which these measurements rest. There is a difficulty inherent in the measurement of the duration of initial [f] in these sentences. Our measurements are all comparable one with the other; they were made from the end of voicing on the larynx line to the beginning of voicing there after the [f]. But this may not include all of the physiologically important phases of [f]. It is perfectly clear that the labial muscles commonly begin their movements before the cessation of a vowel before [f], and it is equally clear that the last three or four waves of the larynx line are caused by movements of the vocal bands while they are in process of opening for the voiceless sound to follow. This sort of thing has been called 'coarticulation' and 'overlapping,' and should be well understood. My measurements include in each case certainly all of the period of 'spirant' air-flow in these *f*-sounds: whether or not this is all of the '*f*-sound' may be debatable, but I think it is at least a significant index of the total duration of such sounds. There is also the problem of the putative 'intersyllabic space' before these *f*-sounds. I believe this has been excluded from my measurements of [f], for I think it lies in the period occupied by the residual vibrations of the opening vocal bands. However, this is only a belief: I have not been able to measure this intersyllabic interval accurately when it is as brief as it is in my sentences. Statistical procedure provides no safeguard against errors in basic assumptions of this sort.

It would appear probable, I suppose, that the longer the word *food* as a whole, the longer the vowel [u] should be. To test this I correlated the duration of [f] plus the duration of [d] with the duration of [u] in each of my eight sentences. The results, in the first column of Table II, indicate that this supposed relationship probably does not exist, unless it be in sentence B2, where r is .39. The $-.19$ of A3 would mean, if it meant anything, that the *shorter* the duration of [f] plus [d], the *longer* that of [u] should be. What this coefficient .39 for B2 means, is that in that series, somewhat more frequently than in the others, an increase in the duration of the consonants is accompanied by an increase in the duration of [u]. That sets this sentence somewhat apart from the others as a special case. I do not believe that this coefficient .39 indicates a significant interdependence of the two factors, because if that were true, (a) the low correlations in the other seven sentences are inexplicable, and (b) negative correlations such as we have in A3, B4 would be wholly impossible.

In order to avoid the complication inherent in this comparison, where one factor is the sum of two elements ([f] plus [d]), I have computed the

coefficients of correlation between [f] and [u] and between [d] and [u]. The results are in columns 2 and 3 of Table II. It is clear, I think, that there is no significant relationship in either case.

There is in these sentences evidence also concerning another approach to the problem of 'tempo.' We can compare the duration of the entire utterance minus *food* with the duration of the word *food*. By comparing the variations in the total duration of each of 35 performances of our sentence A1, 'Did you bring the food?' with the variation in the duration of *food* in each instance, we can isolate the factor of 'tempo,' and thus study its effects, if any. Auditory examination of the records indicates that the intonation pattern and the energy pattern are practically constant throughout the series. A priori, our expectation would be, I suppose, that the longer the duration of the entire sentence, the longer the duration of the word *food*. Actually, this is true in 23 of the 35 performances (66 per cent). The same comparison shows for sentence B1, 64 per cent, for A2, 60 per cent, for B2, 54 per cent. The statistical comparison of these data is set forth in columns 4 and 5 of Table II (T : t and PEr).³ Except for B2 there is a marked difference in the behavior of our first group of sentences as compared with that of our second. A1, B1, A2 each shows a much higher degree of correlation between the duration of the word *food* and that of the sentence as a whole than is shown by any of the group A3 to B4 inclusive. A tentative inference would appear to be permissible, to the effect (a) that there *may be* some causal connection between the total duration of the utterance and the duration of the final stressed word *food*, with full grade vocalism, but (b) that there is apparently no causal connection between variations in the duration of the total utterance and variations in the duration of *food*, when this word has medium stress, with reduced grade vocalism. The probability that this first inference (a) is correct seems to me slight: first, because the percentage of cases in which the relationship is actually found is from 66 to 54 in our data, and second, because of the behavior of B2, 'Who cares anything about the food!' This sentence involves a type of accent associated with emotion: contempt, I suppose, best describes it. To be sure, doubt is involved in A2, 'What? No food?' but this has not caused the same deviation in duration as that found in B2. It is clear that in B2 there is more relationship between the duration of the vowel and the duration of the word as a whole than we find else-

3. The values here given have been carefully checked by the Mathematical Laboratory of the University of Wisconsin. The remainder of Table II is my own computation. PEr, the probable error of the coefficient of correlation, is supposed to be an index of the 'significance' or *r*. In Psychology and in Education PEr is usually of the order of 4.0 or more before a significant relation is assumed from data quantitatively as small as ours. What PEr means in our own case is, I think, still problematical.

where (Table II, f-d : u), and we might infer that the word here is more of a unit to itself and less dependent upon the rest of the utterance than is the case in the other sentences of the first group. On the whole, however, we should do best to leave this discrepancy of B2 unexplained until further data with analogous sentences is available.

It is relatively simple to demonstrate that 'tempo,' as this is commonly understood, has nothing to do with the duration of the final accented word. The syllable rate for A1 is 4.3 per second, the average duration of *food* is .47 seconds; for B1 the syllable rate is 3.7, the duration of *food* .49 seconds; for A2 the rate is 2.0, the duration of *food* .49 seconds; and for B2 the rate is 4.6, the duration of *food* .49 seconds. It is apparent that the definition of the 'tempo' of an utterance in terms of syllables per second is completely useless as an indication of the probable duration of any given one of the constituent syllables of that utterance. The figure of syllable rate per second is significant only when computed for individual syllables, and there it is merely the reciprocal of the duration of the individual syllable to which it applies.

One further conclusion seems indicated: the number of syllables which precede an accented word with full grade vocalism, strongly stressed, has no bearing upon the duration of the stressed syllable in question, at least in sentences of the sort exemplified by A1, B1, A2, and B2.

It would appear to be self-evident that there are limits beyond which these observations will not be valid. If I increase the duration of an utterance artificially to the point where, let us say, it is twice its normal length, something has to be prolonged. We should probably find longer vowels, longer continuant consonants, and perhaps greater 'intersyllabic space.' If I increase the tempo of utterance to the maximum possible speed of articulation, something has to be shortened. We should probably find disappearing vowels and zero intersyllabic space, and if the conditions are favorable various consonantal assimilations. Where such limits lie, I do not yet know; they are, however, apparently outside the range of variation normal for me. It may be that in extreme ranges the correlation between general tempo and the duration of a stressed component will be found to be positive and significant. What I have, I trust, demonstrated, is that within normal ranges of variation the tempo of the utterance as a whole has no effect on the duration of the noun *food* with medium stress (reduced grade vocalism) and only a putative effect upon the duration of *food* with strong stress and full grade vocalism. The factor most actively concerned with the duration of an accented word or of an accented vowel is the degree of stress given it, with the corollary that strong stress with falling intonation produces slightly greater duration of the vowel than strong stress with rising intonation.

PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

I

Transcription of Part I of a phonographic recording made by William Jennings Bryan of his Cross of Gold Speech (Gennett Record, No. 40000A). Mr. Bryan was born in Salem, Illinois, in 1860.

'mistə 'tʃəmən| ʔæn 'dʒentlmən əv ðə kən'ventʃən|| ʔai wud bi prə-
'zʌmptʃuəs in'did| tu pə'zent 'maɪ'seəf| ə'genst ðə dis'tɪŋgwɪʃt 'dʒentlmən
tu 'hum ju hæv 'lɪsənd| ɪf 'ðɪs wə eɪ 'mɪə 'meɪʒəɪŋ| ʔʌv ə'bɪlətɪz|| bat
'ðɪs ɪz 'nɒt ə 'kɒntes| bə'twɪn 'pəsənz|| ðɪ 'hʌmblɪst 'sɪtəsən in 'ɔl ðə
'lændz| mən 'klæd in ðɪ 'aəmʌ əv ə 'raɪtʃəs 'kɔz| ɪz 'strɒŋgə ðən 'ɔl ðɪ
'housts əv 'eəʒə|| aɪ 'kʌm tu 'spɪk tʰə 'ju in ðɪ dɪ'fens əv ə 'kɔ::z| ʔæz 'houli
əz ðə 'kɔ::z əv 'lɪbətɪ|| ðə 'kɔ::z 'ʔʌv hju'mænətɪ||

mən 'ðɪs dɪ'bert ɪz kən'kludəd| eɪ 'moufɪn wəl bi 'meɪd tu 'leɪ əpən ðə
'teɪbl| ðə ,rezə'lʊʃən 'ɔfəd in ,kɒmən'deɪʃən əv ðɪ æd,mɪnɪs'treɪʃən| ənd
'ɔlso ðə ,rezə'lʊʃən 'ɔfəd in ,kɒndəm'neɪʃən| 'ʔɒv ðɪ əd'mɪnɪs'treɪʃən||
wi əb'dʒekt tu 'brɪŋɪŋ ðɪs 'kwestʃən 'daʊn tu ðə 'levl əv 'pəsənz|| ðɪ
,ɪndrɪ'vɪdʒuəl ɪz 'bat ən 'ætəm|| hɪ ɪz 'bɔʊən| hɪ 'æks| hɪ daɪz|| bat 'prɪnsəplz
ʔɒə i'tɜnəl| ənd 'ðɪs hæz bɪn eɪ 'kʌntest| 'ouʊvə eɪ 'prɪnsəpl||

'nevə bə'foʊə in ðə 'hɪstrɪ əv 'ðɪs 'kʌntrɪ| hæz ðə bɪn 'wɪtnəst 'sʌtʃ eɪ
'kʌntest| æz 'ðæt θru 'mɪtʃ wi hæv 'dʒʌst 'pæst|| 'nevə bə'foʊə in ðə 'hɪstrɪ
əv ə'merɪkən 'pɒlɪtɪks| hæz ə 'greɪt 'ɪʃu| bɪn 'fɒt 'aut æz 'ðɪs 'ɪʃu hæz 'bɪn|
baɪ ðə 'voutəz| əv ə 'greɪt 'pɑrtɪ|| ɒn ðə 'foʊəθ əv 'mætsʃ| 'eɪ'tɪn ən 'naɪntɪ
'faɪv| eɪ 'fju 'deməkræts| 'moust əv ðəm 'membəz əv 'kɒŋgrəs| 'ɪʃud ən
ə'dres tu ðə 'deməkræts| əv ðə 'neɪʃən| æ'sætɪŋ ðæt ðə 'mʌnɪ 'kwestʃən
wəz ðə 'pærəmaʊnt 'ɪʃu əv ðɪ 'auθ|| dɪ'kleɪŋ ðæt ə mə'dʒəʊətɪ əv ðə
'demokrætɪk 'pɑtɪ| hæd ðə 'raɪt tu kən'troul ðɪ 'æksən əv ðə 'pɑtɪ|
ɔn 'ðɪs 'pærəmaʊnt 'ɪʃu| æn kən'kludɪŋ wɪð ðə rə'kwest| ðæt ðə brɪ'lɪvəz
ɪn ðə 'fri 'kɒmɪdʒ əv 'sɪlvə| ɪn ðə 'demo'krætɪk 'pɑtɪ| 'ɔəgənəɪz| 'teɪk
'tʃædʒ 'ʌv| æn kən'troul ðə 'pɒlɪsɪ ɒv| ðə 'demokrætɪk 'pɑtɪ|| 'θɪ
'mʌnθs 'leɪtə æt 'mɛmfəs| æn ,ɔəgənə'zeɪʃən wəz pə'fektəd ʔæn ðə 'sɪlvə
'demokræts 'went 'foʊəθ 'ouʊpənɪ| æn kə'reɪdʒəsɪ prɒ'kleɪmɪŋ ðeə bə'lɪf|
æn dɪ'kleɪŋ ðæt ɪf sək'sesfʊl| ðeɪ wud 'krɪstəlaɪz ɪntu ə 'plæt'fɔəm| ðə
,deklə'reɪʃn| mɪtʃ 'ðeɪ hæd 'meɪd|| 'ðen brɪ'gæn ðə 'kɒnfɪkt|| wɪð ə 'zɪl
ə'proutɪŋ ðə 'zɪl| mɪtʃ ɪn'spaɪəd ðə kru'seɪdʒz| hu 'fɒləʊd 'pɪtə ðə
'hɜmɪt| ʔauə 'sɪlvə 'deməkræts 'went 'foʊəθ frəm 'vɪktəɪ ʌntu 'vɪktəɪ|
ʌn'tɪl ðeɪ ə 'naʊ ə'sembld| 'nat tu dɪs'kʌs| 'nat tu dɪ'bert| bat tu 'entə
'ʌp ðə 'dʒʌdʒmənt ɔl'redɪ 'rɛndəd baɪ ðə 'pleɪn 'pɪpl| əv 'ðɪs 'kʌntrɪ||
ɪn 'ðɪs 'kʌntest 'brʌðə hæz bɪn ə'reɪd ə'genst 'brʌðə| 'fəðə ə'genst 'sʌn|| ðə
'wɔʊməst 'taɪz əv 'ʌv| ʌ'kweɪntəns| ənd ə'souɪ'eɪʃən| hæv bɪn ,dɪsɪ-
'gəʊədəd|| 'ould 'lɪdəz hæv bɪn 'kæst ə'saɪd| mən ðeɪ rɪ'fjuɪz tu 'gɪv
ɪk'spreʃən| tu ðə 'sentəmənt əv 'ðəʊz hum 'ðeɪ wud 'lɪd| æn 'nju 'lɪdəz|
hæv 'sprʌŋ 'ʌp tu gɪv dɪ'reksən tu 'ðɪs 'kɔz əv 'truθ|| 'ðʌs hæz ðə 'kʌntest
bɪn 'weɪdʒd| ənd wi hæv ə'sembld 'hɪə| 'ʌndə əz 'baɪndɪŋ nd 'sɒləm

in'strækʃn| əz wəz 'evə im'pouzɪd| ə'pɒn ðə ,reprə'zentətɪvz əv ðə 'pipl||
 mæn 'ju| 'tʃnɪŋ tu ðə 'gould 'delɪɡɪts| kəm bə'foʊ əs nd 'tel əs| ðət
 wɪə ə'baut tu dɪs'tɜːb 'joʊ 'bɪznəs 'ɪntrəsts| wɪ rə'plaɪ ðət 'ju hæv dɪs'tɜːbd
 'ɔʊə 'bɪznəs 'ɪntrəs| bɑɪ 'joʊ 'koʊs|| 'wi 'seɪ tu 'ju ðət ju hæv 'meɪd ðə
 ,defə'nɪʃn əv ə 'bɪznəs 'mæn| 'tu 'lɪmɪtəd| ɪn ɪts ,æplɪ'keɪʃn|| ðə 'mæn
 hu ɪz ɪm'plɔɪd fɔː 'weɪdʒɪz| ɪz əz 'mætʃ ə 'bɪznəs 'mæn əz hɪz ɪm'plɔɪjə||
 ðɪ ə'tʃnɪ ɪn ə 'kɑːntrɪ 'taʊn| ɪz əz 'mætʃ ə 'bɪznəs 'mæn| əz ðə ,kɔːpə'reɪʃən
 'kaʊnsl| ɪn ə 'ɡreɪt me'trɒpələs|| ðə 'mætʃənt ət ðə 'krɔs 'rəʊd 'stoʊə| ɪz
 əz 'mætʃ ə 'bɪznəs 'mæn əz ðə 'mætʃənt əv 'nu 'jɔːk|| ðə 'fa-əmə hu 'ɡouz
 'fɔːθ ɪn ðə 'mɔːnɪŋ| ənd 'tɔɪlz 'ɔl 'deɪ|| hu brɪ'ɡɪnz ɪn ðə 'sprɪŋ nd 'tɔɪlz
 'ɔl 'sɑːmə| ənd 'hu bɑɪ ðɪ ,æplɪ'keɪʃən əv 'breɪn ən 'mɑːsl| tu ðə 'nɪəʃjəl
 'rɪ'soʊsəz ɔv ðə 'kɑːntrɪ| kɪ'reɪts 'welθ| ɪz əz 'mætʃ ə 'bɪznəs 'mæn| əz
 ðə 'mæn hu 'ɡouz ə'pɒn ðə 'bɔːd əv 'treɪd| ən 'bets əpən ðə 'praɪs əv
 'ɡreɪn|| ðə 'maɪnəz hu ɡou 'daʊn ə 'θaʊzənd 'fɪt ɪntu ðɪ 'θɒl ɔː 'klaɪm
 'tu 'θaʊzənd 'fɪt əpən ðə 'klɪfs| ən 'brɪŋ 'fɔːθ frəm ðə 'hɑːdɪŋ 'pleɪsəz|
 ðə 'preʃəs 'metlz| tu bɪ 'pɔːd ɪntu 'tʃænlz əv 'treɪd| ɔː əz 'mætʃ 'bɪznəs
 'men| əz ðə 'fju fə'nænʃl 'mæɡnəts| 'hu ɪn ə 'bæk 'rʊm 'kɔːnə ðə 'mɑːnɪ
 əv ðə 'wɜːld|| 'wi 'kɑːm tu 'spɪk fɔː 'ðɪs 'brɔːdə 'klæs| 'ɔv 'bɪznəs 'men||

Transcribed by Estelle McElroy, graduate student in Phonetics, Teachers College.

II

Transcription of part of a radio recording of the speech of William Allen White, who participated in a discussion on the subject of Dust Storms, April 21, 1935. Mr. White was born in Emporia, Kansas, in 1868.

'weɪl| 'aɪ wəz 'ɪn ə 'dɑːs 'stɔːm ə 'fju 'wɪks ə'ɡou|| 'ðɪs 'meɪdʒə 'dɑːs
 'stɔːm| ɪk'stendəd frəm 'teksəz| ɔn ə 'feərlɪ| 'streɪt 'laɪn tə 'seɪnt 'luəs||
 'nɔːðən 'teksəs| 'ðen 'nɔːθl| tə drɪ'mɔɪn| ən 'west tu 'denvə|| 'streɪndʒlɪ
 rɪ'nɑf ɪt 'keɪm wɪ'θaʊt 'wɪnd|| ðɪ 'lɑːpə 'ætˌmɔːsɪə| 'faɪv ə 'sɪks 'θaʊzənd
 'fɪt| 'sɪmd tu əv 'rɪtʃt ɪr 'dɑːst ,sætʃuə'reɪʃn 'pɔɪnt| ən 'ðen| 'stedərlɪ ðɪ 'ɪə
 'let 'lus| ən ðə 'dɑːst 'keɪm 'sɪftɪŋ 'daʊn wɪ'θaʊt 'wɔːnɪŋ| əz ðɪ 'æʃəz| ɔv
 vɔ'suviəs| 'mɑːst hæv 'fɔːlən ə'pɒn pɑːm'peɪ||

ɪt 'ɡɑt so 'dɑːk ət 'nʌn| ðət 'wɑːn kəd 'nɑt 'sɪ ðə 'lenkθ əv ɪz 'oʊn
 'ʃædɔv|| 'ten 'fɪt wəz ðɪ ɪk'stənt ɔv ,vɪzə'bɪlətɪ| ən əz ɪt ɡɑt 'dɑːkə|
 aɪ 'hɜːd ə 'vɔːɪs ɪn ðə 'fɒɡ 'seɪ| 'weɪl| 'hɪə 'kɑːmz 'paɪks 'piːk||

'treɪnz wə 'taɪd əp ət drɪ'vɪŋ 'pɔɪnts|| ðə 'kænsəs 'haɪ,wɛɪ kə'mɪʃn|
 'blɑkt æ'tɪʊəl 'haɪ,wɛɪz|| 'strɪt 'laɪts wə 'tɜːnd 'ɔn 'ɔl 'pʊvə ðə 'rɪdʒən||
 'pipl 'went 'ɪn'doʊz ən 'weɪtɪd| ən ɪn 'tu 'aʊəz ə 'sou| ɪt 'ɡrædʒəlɪ brɪ'ɡm
 tə 'tʃeɪndʒ| frəm 'dɑːk 'braʊn tu 'ɔːtəndʒ| tu 'lemən 'kɑːlə|| 'ðen tu ə
 'bɑkskɪn 'heɪz ɔv hɔ'raɪzn| ənd 'fɑːməli| tu 'sɑːnfɑɪn||

'dɑːstɔːmz hæv 'swɜːld 'pʊvə 'ðɪz 'haɪ 'pleɪnːz| fə 'ɪədʒɪz| bət dont
 fə'ɡet| ðət 'ðɪs pə'tɪkʃjəl 'dɑːst 'kɑːmz 'lɑːdʒlɪ frəm ðə 'haɪ 'pleɪnːz| 'moʊ
 ðən frəm ðɪ ə'lʊvɪəl mɪ'zʊə| 'værl| 'fɜːðə 'daʊn|| fə 'ʌn,təʊld 'eɪdʒɪz
 'sɪms 'ðoʊz 'pleɪnz wə ðə 'ʃælə 'fɔːz| əv ə 'væst 'mɪd,kɑːntrɪ'nentl 'oʊʃn
 ə 'sɪ| wɪ hæv hæd 'dɑːst 'stɔːmz|| bət 'duːɪŋ 'ðɪz 'eɪdʒɪz| ðə 'ʃælə 'sɪ'fɔː|

hæviŋ rə'sidəd wəz 'kævəd wɪð 'bɒfələu 'græs| 'bʌntʃ 'græs|| 'ðis 'vɜːdʒə
'æŋkəd ðə 'lus 'sænd| æn in ðə mɪ'leniəl 'jɪəz| ðæt 'fələd 'frɪŋkiŋ əv
ði 'oufn| æn ə'lʊviəl 'dʌst 'skɪn wəz 'fəʊnd|| . . . 'mən brɪ'ɡɪn tə 'plau
'ʌndə 'ðis 'vɜːdʒə| bə'kɔːz 'mɪt| tə 'fɪd ði 'ɑːmɪz wəz 'nɪdəd| æn ðə 'praɪs
əv 'mɪt wəz 'maʊntɪŋ||

wɪ 'nu| ɪf wɪ 'keəd tə 'θɪŋk ə'baʊt ɪt| ðæt mən wɪ 'tuːk ə'weɪ ðə 'rut
'æŋkəz ʌv ðə 'sɔɪl| ðə 'sɔɪl wʊd 'raɪz ɪn 'dʌst 'stɔːmz|| ðə 'loukl 'dʌs
'stɔːmz ɪn 'ðɪz 'eəriəz həv bɪn 'blouɪŋ| 'meni 'taɪmz ɪn ðə 'meməri ʌv 'mæn|
'ɪvn| frəm 'æŋkəd 'sɔɪl|| 'sou ɪt 'hæpnd ðæt fə ðə 'fɜːst 'eɪt ə 'ten 'jɪəz
'æftə ðə 'plau| hæd rə'muvd ði 'eɪntʃənt 'æŋkəz| ə 'wet 'saɪkl 'geɪv əs 'mɪt|
tu 'æŋkə| ðə 'sɔɪl|| bət ðə 'foʊə 'jɪə 'draʊθ hæz 'teɪkn 'ɪvn 'ðæt 'mɪt 'æŋkə
frəm ðə 'sɔɪl| 'lɪvɪŋ ɪt 'neɪkɪd| 'bæʒən| ʔʌnpərə'tektəd ə'gɛns ðə 'wɪnd|| . . .

III

Transcription of part of a radio recording of an address given by Senator Arthur Capper, February 10, 1935, on the topic: Equal Educational Opportunity for Every Child. Senator Capper was born in Garnett, Kansas, in 1865.

'frendz| aɪ æm ɪn'dɪd 'hæpɪ tə bi ɔn 'ðis 'prəʊgrəm əv ðə 'næʃnl
'edʒu'keɪʃən ə'soufɪ'reɪʃən| 'fɜːst| brɪ'kɔːz aɪ 'fɪl aɪ æm 'tɔːkiŋ| tu ə'meərəkən
'mʌðəz æn 'fəðəz| ɔn ə 'sʌbdʒɪk ðæt ɪz 'kləʊsə| tu 'ðeə 'haʊts| æn
tu 'maɪ 'haʊt ðæn 'eni 'ʌðə 'θɪŋ æn 'ɪkwəl 'əpə'tunəti fə 'evri 'tʃaɪld|
fə 'juə 'tʃɪldrən| fə juə 'neɪbəz 'tʃɪldrən|| æn 'ðis 'sʌbdʒɪk ɪz ʌv 'sʌtʃ
ɪm'pəʊtəns tu ðə 'fjuːtʃə| kən'tɪnjuːd 'prəgrəs ʌv 'ðis 'kʌntri|| wɪ ə 'bɪldɪŋ
ði ə'meərəkə ʌv tə'marə|| 'strɛɪndʒ əz ɪt meɪ 'sɪm| wɪ kæn ɡəʊ ə'baʊt 'ðis
'bɪɡ 'dʒʌb ɪn ə 'wel'mɪnɪŋ 'weɪ| 'jet ɪf 'əʊə 'ʔefəts əʊ 'nʌt də'rektəd ə'lɒŋ
ðə 'raɪt 'roːd| 'aʊə 'tʃɪldrən wɪl 'faɪnd 'ðeə tə'mɒrəz bi'set wɪθ 'dɪfəkʌltɪz
wɪ ʃʊd həv 'kliəd frəm ðeə 'weɪ| æn ðeɪ wɪl 'læk ðə 'betə 'əpə'tunəti
wɪə 'straɪvɪŋ tu 'ɡɪv ðem||

'nau 'aɪ 'θɪŋk 'ðis ɪz ə 'mæʊə mɪtʃ 'tʃeks 'skwɛəli ʌp tu 'aʊə 'pʌblɪk
'skuə 'sɪstəm æn ɪn 'tɜːn tu 'evri 'mʌðə æn tu 'evri 'fəðə|| no 'daʊt ju
'mʌðəz æn 'fəðəz 'lɪsənɪŋ ɪn həv 'meɪd 'sækrəfɪsəz| 'ɡreɪt 'sækrəfɪsəz|
tu 'ɡɪv 'juə 'tʃɪldrən ə 'betə 'tʃænts ðæn 'ju 'hæd| 'meni əv 'ju həv 'sɜːvd
juə 'dɪstrɪkts 'feɪθfəli| æn let mi 'seɪ 'no ɪn'vestmənt əv jə 'taɪm ɔʊ 'efət
ɔʊ 'mʌni kʊd həv bɪn 'meɪd tu 'betə əd'væntɪdʒ|| jet 'ðæt ɪz 'nʌt ɪ'nʌf||
'ðis 'mæʊə ɪz 'bɪɡə ðæn 'ɪdʒukeɪtɪŋ 'juə 'tʃɪldrən| 'bɪɡə ðæn 'juə 'skul|
ɪt 'tʌtʃəz 'evri kəʊnə əv 'əʊə 'kʌntri|| 'ʌndə 'ɪdʒukeɪtəd 'tʃɪldrən 'mɪn
'ʌndə 'prɪvɪlɪdʒd 'ɡrəʊn 'ʌps|| 'ðeɪ əʊ ðə 'skwɛə 'peɪɡ wɪ ə sou 'kɑːstəntli
'traɪŋ tə 'fɪt ɪntu 'raʊnd 'həʊlz æn 'məʊst əv ðə 'taɪm 'feɪlɪŋ|| ə'mʌŋ
'ðem əʊ ʔʌn'fəʊtʃənəts hu| 'ɪvn ɪn 'prəspəʊs 'taɪmz 'faɪnd ɪt ɪm'pəʊsəbl
tu 'tɜːn ə 'lɪvɪŋ|| ʌn'wɪlɪŋli ə'nʌf ɪn 'meni 'keɪsəz ðeɪ brɪ'kʌm ðə 'wɔːɪdʒ
ʌv 'tʃeərəti|| 'fræŋklɪ| aɪ bə'lɪv 'ðis ɪz ə 'tæks wɪ kæn rɪ'dʊs mə'tʊərəli ɪn
'fjuːtʃə 'jɪəz| 'θru ðə 'wʌn ɪk'spɪdɪənt əv 'meɪkɪŋ 'fuː| 'ɪvri 'tʃaɪld hæz
ən 'ɪkwəl 'əpə'tunəti| tə də'veləp ði ɪn'telədʒəns 'ɡʌd 'ment ɪt tu
'hæv|| . . .

EDITORIALS AND REVIEWS

LANGUAGE IN ACTION

PROFESSOR HAYAKAWA is not the first to consider the results of linguistic phenomena in terms of the overt actions of human beings, individually and in groups. But most of his predecessors have lacked an acquaintance with linguistic science, and have wavered between astonishment at discoveries (which have been familiar to linguists for decades) and elementary misunderstandings. The Hayakawa volume is based upon a knowledge of the results of linguistic science, and is accordingly to be welcomed.

*Language in Action*¹ is an examination of the variety of functions of linguistic communication, from the simplest stimuli to overt action ('Would you shut the door?' 'The light's green now.') through long-range influencing of attitude ('Blood and tears, toil and sweat') and sharings of overt experience ('Denver—81 mi') to evocation ('amid the alien corn'). Each of these functions has its own techniques; each is a kind of communication. Combinations of functions and techniques are considered by Hayakawa, and the results, whether villainous or frustrating, are presented by analysis and example.

The book reveals its author's pretty talent for social paradigms—the invention of context for given linguistic types. The 'exercises' are suggestive quotations, neatly laid out with directions for cross-lighting.

Among the properties of linguistic behavior the author concentrates attention upon the social consequences of 'two-valued' and 'intensional orientation': the 'A/not-A' dichotomy and the 'label = complete description' procedures. The conclusions are familiar, of course; but the examples are judiciously selected to enforce the principles even for the novice in linguistics.

The book is divided into convenient sections (the longest is 22 pages); after an introductory fable follow fifteen chapters: the importance of language, symbols, reports, contexts, words that don't inform, connotations, directive language, how we know what we know, the little man who wasn't there, classifications, the two-valued orientation, affective communication, intensional orientation, rats and men, extensional orientation. Some forty pages of critical and illustrative 'Readings' form an appendix; there are selections from Mark Twain, O. W. Holmes, John Steinbeck, Thurman Arnold, Stuart Chase, and (particularly interesting) B. L. Whorf.

1. *Language in Action*. By S. I. Hayakawa. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1941. ix, 243 pp.

It is the judgment of this reviewer that Hayakawa has successfully presented to laymen some socially important linguistic facts, the inherent limitations of language for communication, the inherent dynamics of language for determining actions and attitudes. The book is not hard reading, and not too evangelistic. Some readers, it is to be feared, will blithely read past the cautions and reserves with which the book is conscientiously provided, but it will be their own fault.

This reviewer holds that there is justification for the attempt to make linguistic knowledge available to large numbers of readers. There can be little doubt that ignorance of the linguistic process constitutes one of the most serious bottle-necks for social progress or indeed social preservation. Language is being manipulated by knaves and zealots to achieve political and mercantile advantage to themselves and disaster to their victims; language is being bungled by innocents to frustrate and madden themselves. And we today have no longer any excuse for ignoring the use to which abstractions can be put, to produce not purity of thought, but unrelieved brutality of action. An exalted abstraction can demonstrably command narcotized devotion from mediocre and inferior intelligences, who can be dazzled by the abstraction to blindness of the realities. In the interest of the 'Masses of the People,' people are liquidated; in the interest of a 'New European Order,' Europeans disintegrate. And is there no danger that in the interest of 'Democracy,' . . .?

W. F. TWADDELL

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THE AMERICAN AGRICULTURAL PRESS, 1819-1860¹

PROFESSOR DEMAREE gives us in this contribution to the Columbia University Studies in the History of Agriculture the first extensive history of the American agricultural press. True, it is limited to the formative years 1819 to 1860, and the author modestly points out that it is not so much a definitive history of the farm press as a description of the contents and objectives of a hundred selected journals plus a more intensive study of sixteen of them.

The highest praise should be given the author for his efforts and his success in making his book readable and even entertaining. His selection of materials for quotation and the interests and fads of the times which are reflected in these old journals make of this book, which presumably is a doctoral dissertation, a treasure for reading and study.

Entertaining though it is, Professor Demaree's volume is significant

1. *The American Agricultural Press, 1819-1860*. By Albert Lowther Demaree. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. xxii, 430 pp.

social and economic history. Its chapters on policies, on advertising, and on the significance of this class press are especially valuable. The 'Selected Articles' are representative and occasionally important. A special chapter is given to the consideration of rural poetry. News departments, sections for boys and girls, and features concerned with sports and recreations gave variety to these old papers.

The management of footnote credits seems a little queer to one who has worked in the same field. To take one example: surely Gilbert M. Tucker's pioneer historical sketch of agricultural periodicals must have been valuable in connection with the study of the *Genesee Farmer*. And a real shortcoming is the absence of careful lists of the editorship and the ownership and similar data in connection with the sixteen papers given intensive study. There is a full bibliography and a good index.

FRANK LUTHER MOTT

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THE STORY OF OUR LANGUAGE

PROFESSOR ALEXANDER'S *The Story of Our Language*¹ is a compendious but highly readable and interesting account of the forces which for centuries have been at work in moulding present-day English. True, it lays no claim to fresh discoveries, yet it contrives to present the subject matter in a manner convincing and pleasing both from a scholarly and pedagogical point of view. A particularly gratifying feature is the frequent inclusion of Swedish and Danish parallels in addition to English, German, and Dutch examples, since this simple device is likely to bring home most effectively the close relationship between the members of the Teutonic group of languages and thus help the reader towards acquiring linguistic perspective.

The chapters devoted to the structure and vocabularies of OE and ME (4-8) seem well adapted to the purpose of familiarizing students with the principal characteristics of these early stages of their language. Occasionally, however, the professional might wish to make minor additions, corrections, or modifications. Thus the statement (p. 35) that 'the vocabulary in Old English times was much smaller than it is today, containing only a small fraction of our modern total of words,' is apt to create the erroneous impression that the OE vocabulary was meager and undeveloped. Some 22,000 OE words have come down to us, representing no doubt only part of the total stock. A considerable number of popular words never happened

1. *The Story of Our Language*. By Henry Alexander. Toronto: Thomas Nelson and Sons Limited, 1940. viii, 242 pp.

to be recorded in independent use. Some of them are gradually being unearthed from the rich linguistic material of English place-names, e.g., OE **bula* 'bull' in *Bulmer* (Essex), etc., whilst others may be concealed in obscure dialect words which still baffle the etymologist. Moreover, by composition and derivation, two almost unlimited sources of word-formation, OE like modern Icelandic, Swedish, and German, was able to coin suitable expressions and terms for new concepts; witness, e.g., the grammatical terminology employed by Ælfric: *participium*—*dǣlnimend*, *præpositio*—*foresetnes*, *imperativus*—*bebēodendlic*, *superlativus*—*oferstīgendlic*, etc. Linguistically this flexibility is a far more important characteristic of OE than the few Celtic and Latin loanwords, however great their cultural significance.

Now and again one misses useful parallels. To the instances of the unchanged plural (pp. 53 and 86) we may add a *ten-pound note*, *five pound ten*, and the collective use of *horse* in a *troop of horse*. The prefix *ge-* (p. 58) survives, e.g., in *aware*, *enough* and *handiwork*. OE *hine* (p. 60) is still retained in the Hampshire dialect as 'n (Hardy's *un*); cf. *gee't'n* 'give it him,' *gee'nsum* 'give him some,' mentioned by Watts (1721), who hailed from Southampton. *Oxen* should have been included among the *n*-plurals (p. 85). The literal translation of OE *geseah hine standan* (p. 62) is 'saw him stand,' not 'to stand,' which would have been OE *to standanne*. On p. 95 attention might well have been drawn to the difference in usage between *sunny* and *solar*, *fatherly* and *paternal*, etc. Since the book was written, *Blitzkrieg* (p. 99) has been reduced to *Blitz* with the functions of a noun, adjective, and verb. The final *t* in *against*, *amongst* (p. 118) is due to the following definite article in ME *againes-þe*, etc.; cf. Jordan-Matthes, *Handbuch der mittellenglischen Grammatik*, §199. The double comparative (p. 126), still found in uneducated speech, has become the accepted usage in *lesser*, e.g., *the Lesser Bear*.

The treatment of the main differences between American and British English is sound and lucid. At times, however, one is tempted to put a question mark in the margin. For instance, American English has both *postal card* (p. 184), colloquially also just *postal*, and *post card*; according to Webster's *Collegiate Dictionary* (5th ed.), *postal card* is 'a card with a printed postage stamp sold by the government,' whereas *post card* is 'any private or unofficial card admitted to the mail on the affixing of a postage stamp.' And does not British English *chemist's* (*shop*) correspond to both *drugstore* and *pharmacy* in America? The pronunciation of *forehead* as *fore* + *head* must be a deliberate, hypercorrect usage in certain regions or circles which is perhaps destined to become generally accepted; it is,

however, recognized neither by Webster's *Dictionary*, nor by Daniel Jones's *Pronouncing Dictionary* (4th ed.).¹

Misprints are few. Those I have noted occur mainly in the OE texts on pp. 42-43, where the ligature *æ* should have been used in *nænig*, *þær*; here we also find *harþ* instead of *harp*. *From* (p. 43, l. 5, from below) should have been within square brackets. On pp. 57 and 58 (*ge*) should have been joined to *riden*, *writen*, *sungen*, *druncen*, *hïered*, *sôht*, *leornod*. The Chaucer extract on p. 78 has *fingers* instead of *fyngres*.

HELGE KÖKERITZ

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THE RHETORIC OF ALEXANDER HAMILTON²

THIS handsome book is one result, and a worthy one, of the widespread and growing study, in this country, of the rhetorical tradition of the Western world. Since this study has not yet enlightened the entire literate population, most historians and critics having remained ignorant of that important tradition, Professor Aly deemed it necessary to summarize the classical positions of rhetoric before treating his announced subject. Thus his book serves two purposes: it informs the reader fully concerning the rhetoric of Alexander Hamilton, but it also, and even more importantly, states the criteria of rhetorical evaluation and offers a model of criticism in this field.

Other studies of individual orators should follow, and if they are to be of worth they must needs pursue the method Professor Aly has used. The basis of this method is Aristotle's *Rhetoric*, with its rather obvious rubrics of speaker, audience, occasion, and speech, and its less obvious division of proofs into ethical, emotional, and logical. Although a belle-lettrist might find Professor Aly's treatment a bit formal, his schematism is entirely justified in view of the pioneer nature of his work; justified, too, by the result, since the reader will have to admit that here he can learn more about Hamilton's rhetoric than he can learn elsewhere, and that the oratory of no other American has been presented with such clarity and thoroughness.

The greater part of the book deals with the Poughkeepsie Convention of June and July, 1788, called to ratify or reject, on behalf of the State of

1. An American reader might add that Professor Alexander does not always show an appreciation of levels of American usage, e.g. in his remarks on *extraordinary*, *genuine*, *sleuth*, *to suicide*, and might question *on behalf of*, *wangle*, *wetblanket*, *skinflint*, *doctor*, *buy* as particularly British words and *to face up to something* as an Americanism. Mr. Alexander thinks that American English may lose the r-sound now pronounced in words like 'car, first, etc.' Most Americans would disagree with this opinion.—THE EDITORS.

2. *The Rhetoric of Alexander Hamilton*. By Bower Aly. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. x, 226 pp.

New York, the new Federal Constitution. We learn that the Convention consisted of forty-six avowed Antifederalists and nineteen Federalists; yet the vote was for unconditional ratification, thirty to twenty-seven (with several delegates absent or not voting). Hamilton made three long speeches, each of which is analyzed by Professor Aly, and he served as the tactical leader of the successful Federalist group. Although Professor Aly rightly refuses to attribute the result to Hamilton's speeches alone, recognizing many other factors in the complex occasion, he is able to estimate with remarkable clearness just what the weight of those speeches must have been. His treatment of Hamilton's audience and of the opposing speakers is of special value. The reader will find the story of the Convention, though presented studiously and analytically, a really exciting one, and all the more so because he knows he is closer to the realities than if the story had been told by a writer of historical fiction.

The greatest lack felt by this reviewer is one for which the author is not responsible—the lack of a close study of Hamilton's style and delivery. The documents simply do not provide material for this; though something might have been done with the one point of diction, to which Hamilton's papers in *The Federalist* would have been pertinent. The fact is, of course, that in dealing with any speaker who lived before the days of mechanical recording of appearance and sound, and before the days of exact reporting (if those days have ever come), we are at a loss to learn just what our speaker said, how he looked and sounded when he spoke, what was the cadence of his utterance, what his mannerisms of gesture and pronunciation, and so on. Even with a speaker standing before us, some of these important minutiae escape observation or description.

HOYT H. HUDSON

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FOUR PLAYS BY ROYALL TYLER¹

THIS book is the result of bad editing. Beginning with the blunder on page 1 of an utterly inadequate introduction which makes Royall Tyler begin to practice law in Maine in 1870, the volume goes on to exhibit the characteristics of poor editorial judgment. The reader, who may have paid his five dollars for the book, is blandly informed that 'a definitive edition of Tyler's works is in course of preparation by the present editors,' scarcely a recompense for three thoroughly dull biblical plays and one farce comedy. The provenience of the manuscripts which the

1. *Four Plays by Royall Tyler*. Edited by Arthur Wallace Peach and George Floyd Newbrough. (*America's Lost Plays*, Vol. 15.) Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1941. viii, 121 pp.

editors have followed is nowhere indicated, nor is the date of writing or of production anywhere given. Most of the introduction has nothing to do with the contents of the volume and sheds no light upon it. Except for *The Island of Barrataria*, no 'play' here printed throws the slightest light on the history of the American theater. Finally, the editors have followed a mysterious 'text of the original manuscripts' with such strange fidelity as sometimes to make hash of the blank verse and sometimes to destroy sense.

'MONTE CRISTO' BY CHARLES FECHTER
AND OTHER PLAYS

Although the *America's Lost Plays* series has proved to be erratic in standards of editorial work and uncertain in editorial judgment, the present volume¹ somewhat redeems the futility of its predecessor. The 'other plays' are *Hippolytus* by Julia Ward Howe, *Mistress Nell* by George C. Hazelton, *Becky Sharp* by Langdon Mitchell, and *The Warrens of Virginia*. Since all these have been produced within the memory of living playgoers the volume has an especial appeal; and it is pleasant to discover that in their kind *Monte Cristo*, *Mistress Nell*, and *Becky Sharp* are as good as one's memory of them makes them out to be. *The Warrens of Virginia* works hard at the moonlight-and-roses kind of Civil War play, but is somehow less satisfactory than Hazelton's sentimental romance about Nell Gwyn. As for *Hippolytus* it is a respectable production once staged by Margaret Anglin.

The editorial work in this volume is brief and factual. There are only a few howlers. One learns with a start of surprise that Fernand, the enemy of Monte Cristo, served under the 'Pasha of Jamaica' (p. 28), an unforgivable error for 'Janina'; it may be doubted that Mr. Hazelton intended King Charles II to say: 'we will teach Radaman thus' (p. 192), when the mythical Rhadamanthus is clearly intended; and it is somewhat painful to discover 'the following data is listed' (p. 287) in a book by a university press.

The amount of technical stage directions, light plots, music cues, and similar ancillary material in these dramas should be useful to the research worker in theatrical argot.

HOWARD MUMFORD JONES

Harvard University

1. *Monte Cristo* by Charles Fechter as Played by James O'Neill; *Other Plays* by Julia Ward Howe, George C. Hazelton, Langdon Mitchell, William C. de Mille. Edited by J. B. Russak. (*America's Lost Plays*, Vol. 16.) Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1941. 360 pp.

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* Many of the items in this bibliography have been supplied by a committee of readers. We wish to acknowledge for this issue the assistance of Minnie Buckingham, A. L. Hench, Joseph Jones, A. G. Kennedy, Mamie Meredith, F. F. Seely, Catherine Sturtevant, Robert Wadsworth, John C. Wyllie; phonetics: J. M. Cowan, Karola Geiger.

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- One part of the study deals with the duration thresholds for pitch perception.
- Vanselow, M. Vom Rhythmus des Satzes. *Zeitschrift für Deutschkunde*, 53: 450-471. 1939.
- There exists a definite relationship between logical thinking and rhythm. Rhythm is characteristic of human thinking. It combines stress and pitch.

NEW EVIDENCE ON AMERICANISMS

The purpose of this section is to display regularly new evidence on the American vocabulary before 1901. Quotations are solicited and should be sent to Woodford Heflin of the University of Chicago. The contributor for this initial issue is Woodford Heflin.

SYMBOLS: + before a word or definition indicates an Americanism shown in the DAE. ++ indicates an Americanism not shown in the DAE. A date immediately following a word or definition indicates the time of evidence shown in the DAE, or, if so stated, in previous issues of *American Speech*. A date in []'s indicates the time of British usage. An * after a word indicates that the word is illustrated in British usage before 1600.

+ACEQUIA. An irrigation ditch. 1844-.

++1. *Acequia madre*, a main ditch.—1844 Gregg *Commerce of the Prairies* I.151 One *acequia madre* . . . for the irrigation of an entire valley. 1864. *Weekly New Mexican* (Santa Fe) 18 Nov. 3/1 [Bounded] on the east by the *acequia madre*.

++2. *Main acequia*, = sense 1.—1863 *Rio Abajo Press* (Albuquerque) 20 Jan. 3/2 On the West 10 varas, bounded by the main *acequia*.

+ADOBE. 1821-.

++1. *quasi-adj.* in predicate position. Of adobe bricks. 1847-, in attrib. position.—1870 *Republican Review* (Albuquerque) 25 June 2/3 Their houses are adobe. 1880 *Cimarron* (N.M.) *News* 30 Sep. 3/3 The buildings are principally adobe.

+2. Dirt of which adobe bricks are made. 1856, 1881.—1890 *Stock Grower* (Las Vegas, N.M.) 26 July 6/3 I dug the adobe out of my ears.

++ALBUR. [Sp.] A kind of card game.—1851 *N.M. House Jnl.* 31 All gambling at albur shall be prohibited.

++ALEGRIA. [Sp.] See quots. 1846 (*AS* 16: 185).—1844 Gregg *Commerce of the Prairies* I.218 The belles of the ranchos . . . have a disgusting habit of besmearing their faces with crimson juice of a plant called *alegria*. 1856 Davis *El Gringo* 325.

ALEXANDER*. ++A variety of peach tree.—1890 *Stock Grower* 24 May 7/2 The Alexanders . . . are loaded with fruit [in the Mesilla Valley].

++ALKALI WATER.—1880 *Cimarron News* 19 Aug. 1/6 In broadcast crops with surface irrigation, alkali water would prove

injurious. 1890 *Stock Grower* 21 June 4/1.

+ALMUD. A dry measure of about one peck. 1849, 1900.—1864 *Weekly New Mexican* 4 Nov. 1/3 Corn is sold the *almud*.

++AMERICAN COW. A good breed of cow, as distinguished from the Texas long-horn or the Mexican cow.—1865 *Weekly New Mexican* 17 Mar. 2/3 Auction, . . . one American cow. 1875 *Cimarron News* 7 Aug. 4/4 What are cattle worth? . . . Texas cows, \$12 to \$16 per head; American cows, \$25 to \$50 per head.

++AMIGO. [Sp.] A friend.—1854 *Harper's Mag.* Apr. 580/1 These [eggs] they were willing to dispose of to their 'amigos.' 1863 *Rio Abajo Press* 30 June 3/2. 1880 *Cimarron News* 26 Feb. 3/2 Our old amigo P. M. Davenport.

++ANCHOR. CATTLE. Cattle used as the nucleus stock of a herd.—1890 *Stock Grower* 11 Jan. 11/2 All 'anchor' cattle belonging to this company are tally branded and all increase of 1884 is in the same brand.

++ANTI-STATE PLANK. A political plank stating a party's opposition to a territory's seeking admission into the Union.—1871 *Republican Review* 25 Feb. 1/1 We are confident that the man who places this 'anti-State' plank in his political platform . . . is bound to win.

AZTEC. An Indian of the Nahuatlan tribe of Mexico [1737-], ++once thought to be of the same people as the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico.—1854 *Harper's Mag.* Apr. 592/2 The ancient Aztec and Catholic ruins. 1871 *Republican Review* 18 Mar. 1/3 Old Aztec inhabitants of this country. 1885 *Weekly New Mexican Review* (Santa Fe) 30 Apr. 3/6 Years ago the Aztecs had great irrigating canals all over the 'flat' southwest of Santa Fe.

1. The place of publication is not repeated for newspapers referred to a second time.

++BABY BEEF. [1909.].—1890 *Stock Grower* 26 Apr. 5/3 Baby Beef. One of the marked changes in the method of cattle feeding is the increased number of yearling steers that are in the feed lots.

+BABY SHOW. 1867.—1864 *Weekly New Mexican* 10 June 2/3 A recent baby show in Cincinnati.

++BAD INDIAN. An Indian who stirs up trouble for the whites.—1885 *Weekly New Mexican Review* 21 May 1/5 Geronimo [the Apache] is the 'bad Indian' who caused so much trouble in Mexico a year ago.

+BAILE. 1844-. A dance hall. 1907.—1880 *Cimarron News* 15 Apr. 1/7 Charles Fernandez, a buckboard driver on the Santa Fe and Alamosa line, was killed in a baile near Chama.

++BAILE ROOM. A dance hall.—1856 Davis *El Gringo* 264 The etiquette of the baile-room in New Mexico is quite accommodating, and there is no barrier against a person selecting whom he may desire for a partner. 1867 *Weekly New Mexican* 1 June 2/4 The only baile room in Dolores.

+BALDY. A bare mountain top, usually covered with snow. Frequently *Old Baldy*. 1875, 1884.—1863 *Rio Abajo Press* 28 Apr. 2/2 Within the perlieus [*sic*] of the Rio Chiquito and 'Old Baldy.' 1881 C. M. Chase *Editor's Run* 59 Baldy is 12,000 feet above the sea, 5,000 feet above its eastern base.

BAR*. 1639-. ++Frequent in the names of brands and ranches.—1890 *Stock Grower* 29 Mar. 6/4 Circle Bar Ranch. *Ibid.* 15 Mar 6/3 The G-bar-outfit.

+BARB WIRE. 1882-.—1880 *Cimarron News* 26 Feb. 1/7 The use of barb wire fence, which was almost unknown five years ago, has assumed great proportions.

++BARLEY COFFEE.—1865 *Weekly New Mexican* 24 Mar 1/4 After drinking a little barley coffee, we left Carizo Creek.

BARONY*. 1669-. ++Applied to an extensive cattle ranch.—1890 *Stock Grower* 1 Feb. 7/2 Texas is at a stage of progress now when there is more money

in a small, well cultivated farm, with a few good cattle on it, than in the immense baronies held by cattlemen in the past.

++BAR SILVER.—1885 *Weekly New Mexican Review* 19 Feb. 4/5 Bar silver dropped to \$1.06½ in New York.

BASE*. 1845-. +To change one's base, to decamp. 1869-.—1863 *Rio Abajo Press* 28 July 4/3 Judge Baird's defeat . . . caused him to change his 'base' to California.

BAY WINDOW*. 1828-. +A large protruding stomach. 1889-.—1879 *Cimarron News* 27 Nov. 3/1 He appears more good natured than ever since his bay window began to form.

++BEEFERY. A packing plant for beef. —1890 *Stock Grower* 12 Apr. 3/1 How does it come that no one else started a Pacific beefery?

BELT*. A blow under the belt, an unfair blow.—1864 *Weekly New Mexican* (Santa Fe) 16 Dec. 1/3 To mention that . . . might be considered 'a blow under the belt.'

+BIG JAW. 1867-. ++An animal affected with a disease causing swelling of the jaw.—1890 *Stock Grower* (Las Vegas, N.M.) 10 May 3/1 We still advise ranchmen to shoot down what few big jaws may be found on the range.

+BIG MONEY. 1882-.—1880 *Cimarron* (N.M.) *News* 15 July 3/2 'Big money' to be made in cattle and sheep.

+BILLIARD SALOON. 1867-.—1847 *Santa Fe Republican* 10 Sep. 3/1 Missouri House and Billiard Saloon.

+BLACKSNAKE WHIP. 1901-.—1880 *Cimarron News* 23 Dec. 3/1 Drovers Whips, Blacksnake Whips, . . . at Porter's.

+BLIND LODE. Mining. A lode not visible on the surface. 1883.—1880 *Cimarron News* 1 July 2/2 A blind lode cut within the first 20 feet assayed 98½ oz. of silver.

+BLOAT. 1861-. ++A distended swelling of a cow's abdomen caused by gas on the stomach.—1881 *Cimarron News* 3 Mar. 2/2 There is danger of bloat if cattle are turned on [alfalfa]. 1890 *Stock Grower* 28 June 6/4 A simple cure for Bloat.

MISCELLANY

LOUISE POUND

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FROM MR. BYINGTON'S BRIEFCASE

Compilers of dictionaries do not seem to make as much use of published lists of words as they might. For instance, it might have been a matter of routine that a dictionary recording the uses of words in England and America should excerpt the indexes of a few leading cook-books of both countries. If the editors of the *NED* had consulted American cook-books they would not have suggested that *lady finger* in the sense of a kind of cake (listed under *lady's finger*) may be obsolete, any more than they would have said the same thing if they had consulted the windows of New York bakeries. Probably a quotation for *lady finger* in an American cook-book can be found even oftener by looking at the receipt for *charlotte russe* than by looking under *lady finger*; but the editors of the dictionary could not have been expected to know this. If British usage gives any justification for the suggestion of obsolescence, then the *DAE* might justifiably have listed the word as one that survives here while fading out in England. Compare, however, the *DAE* quotations under *lady cake*: the two-for-a-cent lady-cakes must have been lady fingers, and quite different from the sliced lady-cake.

Likewise, Britton and Brown's *Illustrated Flora* claims that its final index is the completest list of

American plant names up to date. But the dictionaries, even those that claim most completeness, do not undertake to incorporate the Britton and Brown material. Furthermore, neither Britton and Brown nor the dictionaries have utilized a beekeeper's list of honey-producing plants, such as may be found in the *ABC and XYZ of Bee-Keeping*. If they had, they would have become aware that to the American beekeeper the name *heartsease* means not a pansy but a sort of smartweed. Additional quotations for this use of *heartsease* will be found in beekeeping periodicals.

For some years now the catalogs of dealers in bulbs have admonished us that a recognized American name for the flowering bulb *Ornithogalum* is *chinkerichee* (as I saw it first) or *chincerichee* (as I see it nowadays). There are different species, white and yellow; and I believe *darling chincerichee* is, or was, not a mere expression of admiration but the distinctive name of one species.

In *American Speech* for October I observe the *mountain oyster* (p. 236) and its cousin the *prairie oyster* (p. 181). The paper jacket of the *National Cookbook* (Harper & Bros., 1932) is a gastronomic map of the United States, marking, among other things, the boundaries of the Pie Belt, the Pot Likker Belt, the Milk Gravy Belt, and, covering

nearly all the Western mountains, the Mountain Oyster Belt. The *mountain oyster* is in the Standard Dictionary (the copy I consult just now is the edition of 1917). Is the *mountain oyster* excluded from the *DAE* because it is regarded as a word of twentieth-century date or because it is regarded as slang?

The dictionary pronunciation of *children* is of course [tʃɪldrən]. So too, with a double dot on the *i*, in the phonetic transcription of Theodore Roosevelt's speech on p. 208 of *American Speech* for October. But the pronunciation I learned from my parents (from both of them, I think—eastern and western Vermont) was [tʃʊldrən]. Last night, if I was not mistaken, I heard this same pronunciation more than once from a public speaker of high academic standing. I think it probable that I often hear this pronunciation without noticing it, since it is the pronunciation familiar to me from earliest childhood and therefore is not likely to draw my attention. Does it not exist in sufficient quantity to be worth listing in catalogs of American pronunciations?

Mr. Gephart's list of origins of nicknames of baseball clubs is very accurate, but he is anachronistic when he says that the name *Trolley Dodgers* (as I think it was then written) in the late 1880's stigmatized the Brooklynites as jay-walkers. The conception of a jay-walker did not exist at that date, and least of all in New York (which did not include Brooklyn) because New York's street cars were horse-drawn and slow. Automobiles had not been in-

vented, and the idea that it was a nuisance to cross a city street at random had not got into the public mind. But Brooklyn was in the New Yorker's mind the trolley capital of the world (whether it actually had then more trolleys than any other city on earth I am not sure), so it was a routine joke to designate Brooklyn, in varied phraseology, as the city of trolleys. It was well understood that trolleys were swifter than New York's horse-cars and gave more occasion for a quick dodge; hence, when a picturesque way of saying *the team from trolley-town* was wanted, *trolley-dodgers* suggested itself. The twentieth-century word *jay-walker* was invented for the purpose of creating public feeling against the practice. It was part of a deliberate campaign.

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REMARKS ON 'GLOSSARY OF ARMY SLANG'¹

The following annotations on a few items in the 'Glossary' are based on four months' experience (June to October, 1941) as a draftee private at Fort Sill, Oklahoma; Edgewood Arsenal, Maryland; and Bolling Field, D.C. In parentheses after each entry is the explanation given in the 'Glossary.'

'ARMORED COW (canned milk).' This, along with several other food-terms, like *embalmed bull* for corned beef and *blood* for ketchup, I heard used only once—by a draftee corporal trying to show off to

1. *American Speech*, 16: 163-169 (October, 1941).

a group of recruits in the mess hall. They were not impressed.

'ARMY STRAWBERRIES (prunes).' See the preceding entry; but the form used was *G. I. strawberries*.

'AWOL (absent without official leave).' Originally an official abbreviation, but so widely used as to have the effect of slang; sometimes also expanded to *A.W.O. Loose*. This and several other abbreviations (such as *CO*, *NCO*, *OD*, etc.) I should expect to see printed with periods: *A.W.O.L.*, *C.O.*, etc.

'BELLY ROBBER (mess sergeant).' Rather rare, and used only by old regulars. The draftees gripe about the food, but apparently hold no grudge against the mess sergeant.

'BOB-TAIL (dishonorable discharge).' Less common now than the abbreviation *D.D.*

'DAILY DETAILS (daily work schedule issued by the first sergeant).' Not slang, but the semi-official variant for what is officially the *duty roster*; the slang term for it is obscene.

'DRY RUN (to practice; a dress rehearsal).' I never heard it used as a verb, or to mean a dress rehearsal. Originally a semi-official term for practice firing without ammunition, it is slang in other senses, such as a mail-call at which one receives no mail.

'DUFFLE BAG (clothes bag).' A Navy term, I believe, but not used in the Army; the official army term (not slang, and there is no slang equivalent) is *barracks bag*.

'GOLD BRICK (one who gets by without doing his share of work).' Very common army slang, not only as a noun but also as a verb meaning to avoid work by any means, especially dishonest ones.

'GOOFS OFF (makes a mistake).' Much less common than several obscene equivalents.

'HAM (amateur radio operator).' Originally, I think, radio operators' slang, perhaps influenced by the theatrical slang *ham* (a bad or amateurish actor); by now general American slang, certainly not confined to the army.

'LATRINE RUMORS (unfounded re-

ports).' A commoner slang term, but still not very common (for most soldiers like to believe every rumor they hear, no matter how improbable or unpleasant) is *latrineogram*.

'MAGGIE'S DRAWERS (red flag used on rifle range to indicate a miss).' Common army slang; taken from an obscene song, 'Those Old Red Flannel Drawers that Maggie Wore,' sung to a tune similar to those of 'Tramp, Tramp, Tramp' and 'Jesse James,' and dating from 1921 or earlier—probably the First World War.

'ONE-STRIPER (private first class).' Fairly common army slang; but I never heard *two-striper* for corporal or *three-striper* for sergeant.

'PEARL DIVER (kitchen police).' General American restaurant and hotel slang, not confined to the army; it would mean in the army, as elsewhere, not kitchen police in general, but a dishwasher.

'REFUGEES (recruits or newly arrived selectees).' I heard this only once or twice, at Fort Sill, and suspect that it is confined mainly to reception centers.

'SOUP (dynamite).' General slang, I think, in all trades where dynamite is used; not confined to the Army.

'TAILOR-MADES (factory-made cigarettes).' This, like *makings* or *rollings* for roll-your-own cigarette tobacco, is general American slang. All three are fairly old, and may have originated either in the Army or among western cowhands.

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'WAWA'

I have not seen the Funk list of 50 new words for 1941, but on page 240 of *American Speech* for October, 1941, there is a note on the spelling of *wa-wa*, from which I quote the last sentence of the first paragraph: 'In Cuba it means "omnibus," because the busses use horns which sound like a baby's cry.'

The word *guagua*, pronounced [wawa], forms part of the adverbial

phrase *de guagua*, meaning free, gratis.¹ *Vive de guagua*, he lives free, that is, all his expenses are paid by others. *Entré de guagua*, I got in free, without paying. In Cuba the word *guagua* has never been applied to babies, but it is also the name of a dark fungus attacking certain plants.

The sound [wawa] would not be considered onomatopoeic for a baby's cry in Cuba, but rather of a dog's bark. Besides, the term began to be used long before the use of horns and motor cars, in the following way:

From about 1875 the city of Havana had horse-drawn street cars in which the fare was ten cents silver, but about the middle of the 80's an enterprising promotor obtained a concession establishing a different sort of vehicle—a small four-wheeled horse-drawn bus, with the entrance at the rear.

If I remember correctly, the fare in these busses was five cents, paper money, which at the usual rate of exchange was about two cents silver, that is only a fourth of the fare on the street cars. Because of the cheapness these busses became immediately very popular, and people began to use the expression 'me voy de guagua,' 'fuí de guagua,' meaning 'I'm going or I went gratis' when they meant that they were going by bus and not by the street cars. Finally, as there was no special term to distinguish these vehicles from the *carros*, as the street

cars were called, the name *guagua* stuck as the colloquial designation of a popular public conveyance not running on tracks. It is used today for all motor busses throughout Cuba.

The comparison of the horn to a baby's cry shows how very difficult it is to interpret and understand the working of the popular mind in a foreign language. The allusion of the last paragraph of the contribution referred to, is unintelligible to us in Cuba. Central and South American countries can no more be considered as one whole in this way than England, the United States, and Australia.

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FOR THE DAE SUPPLEMENT

The *Dictionary of American English* has under 'Banquette'

+ 2 *La*. A raised sidewalk or footpath.
1844 J. Cowell *Thirty Years* 95 . . .

The *New Orleans Times Picayune*, Nov. 30, 1941, carries a 'flash-back': 'As the Picayune saw it, November 30, 1841':

The Second Municipality Council forbade auction sales in the neutral ground in Canal street, and the drawing of fire engines or hose carriages on the banquettes.

The following notice, dated Dec. 1, occurs in the *New Orleans Weekly Picayune*, Dec. 6, 1841, p. 330: 4.

SECOND MUNICIPALITY COUNCIL.
—The council of this municipality, at its meeting last evening, passed an ordinance for the prevention of auction sales on the neutral grounds in Canal Street, and

An ordinance imposing a fine of not less than ten dollars, nor more than one

1. A standard phrase. See *Pequeño Larousse*.—Ed.

hundred dollars, on every person found drawing a fire engine or hose carriage, on the banquette.

In the same periodical, March 1, 1841, p. 11: 2, is the following sentence, less illustrative of the word's meaning: 'The sterner sex took their places on the banquette.' Both instances adduced here antedate the DAE citation by three years.

The expression *neutral ground* may also deserve reception into the DAE list. The expression is indispensable in New Orleans today to designate the neutral space which lies between the two traffic highways which traverse each main avenue. With the general adoption of this method of construction by modern highway engineers this old New Orleans expression may attain wider currency.

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'POMPEYED'

According to Dorothy Campbell of Lincoln, Nebraska, her mother, Mrs. J. H. Campbell of Ventura, California, who is originally from West Virginia, often called her in her juvenile days a 'pompeyed child,' meaning a spoiled or overcoddled one. This expression seems to have come to America from England. It has no connection with Pompey, as might be assumed, but plainly is a form of 'pampered.' Wright's *English Dialect Dictionary* enters a verb *pomper*, to feed up, terming it a dialect form of *pamper*. Mrs. Campbell's *pompeyed* is its past participle without the final *r*. The word is not entered in

the American dialect lists I have examined. It is of interest to bring up in connection with the California use of the expression its occurrence in Charles Dickens's *Great Expectations* (1860). Toward the beginning of the sixth chapter the narrator says, 'When I was old enough, I was to be apprenticed to Joe, and until I could assume that dignity I was not to be what Mrs. Joe called "pompeyed" or (as I render it) pampered.'

L.P.

'THRILLER' AND 'SHOCKER'

Howard Haycraft in *Murder for Pleasure, The Life and Times of the Detective Story* (Appleton Century, 1941) notes that

In America, the term 'thriller' is usually employed to indicate the sensational crime story, as distinctive from the police novel proper. In England, on the other hand, it has come increasingly to mean the bona fide detective story. When the English wish to signify the sensational novel they say 'shocker.'

He points out that this difference in nomenclature is illustrated by a book by Basil Hogarth entitled *Writing Thrillers for Profit*. This was published only in England and is written in terms of the British market, and Americans might not realize that it dealt with the *detective* story. Of course, the uninitiated may not appreciate the difference between *detective* stories and mystery stories, crime stories, etc., but to the true detective story fan, there is a very distinct difference.

F.W.B.

WESTERNISMS

Visitors to the Rocky Mountain West have from early times been struck by some of the expressions common there but strange to Easterners. In 1867, A. K. McClure, a journalist and lawyer from Pennsylvania, wrote back from Union City, Montana Territory, to the New York *Tribune* and the *Franklin Repository*, the following about the people he had met and their strange language:

They are eminently social; and their peculiar expressions have a significance of which the more cultivated East have [sic] no knowledge. In all classes, from the most learned to the least favored in letters, the same expressive Westernisms are in common use. If a man is embarrassed in any way, he is 'corraled.' The Indians 'corral' men on the plains; the storms 'corral' tourists in the mountains; the criminal is 'corraled' in prison; the tender swain is 'corraled' by crinoline; the business man is 'corraled' by debt or more enterprising and successful competitors; the unfortunate politician is 'corraled' by the mountaineers, the gulchmen, or the settlers; the minister is 'corraled' when he is called to become the pastor of a congregation; and the gambler 'corrals' the dust of the miner. Indeed, the application of the term is almost as indefinite as it is universal. 'Git' is another of the favorite and most expressive of Western terms. It is the invariable word by which the hero of the whip and lines starts his teams; and they understand it well. 'You git,' is the most emphatic notice that can be given to any luckless chap to leave the room or ranch, or to escape a revolver; and 'You bet' is the most positive manner of affirmation. Everything is an 'outfit,' from a train on the plains to a pocket-knife. It is applied almost indiscriminately—to a wife, a horse, a dog, a cat, or a row of pins. A 'lay-out' is any proposed enterprise, from organizing a State to digging out a prairie-dog. Any-

thing that has been tried, from running for Congress to bumming a drink, has been 'prospected' or 'panned out;' and 'he didn't get a color,' expresses the saddest of failures. When a Western man declines any proposition, he 'ain't on it,' he 'don't go a cent on that,' or 'none of that in mine,' is his answer. When he wants to deal or fight with a man, he proceeds to 'go for him;' and 'I'll bet my bottom dollar' is his strongest backing to his expressed opinion. 'The man in the wagon' is the author of all sayings and doings which can find no visible or responsible source. When the miner goes for the savages, he 'cleans 'em out to the bed-rock;' and when a braggart is to be silenced, he is informed that 'nobody's holding you,' or 'there's no weights on your coat-tails.' When one gets the decided advantage over another, whether in deadly conflict or in business, he 'had the drop on him.' The universal term for eatables is 'grub;' and the most degrading epithet that one can apply to another is to pronounce him 'a bilk.' No Western man of pluck will fail to resent such concentrated vituperation. The term was entirely novel to me, and I first asked its meaning of a landlord, who explained by saying that 'a "bilk" is a man who never misses a meal and never pays a cent.' There are many others, equally original and expressive, which I have heard often, but cannot now recall. Used as they are by all classes, in business and social circles, and by both sexes, they have become part of the language of the country; and a stranger's fitness for Western life is judged by his readiness in acquiring the use of them.¹

Another approach was taken by George A. Crofutt when he prepared his *Grip-Sack Guide of Colorado* (Omaha, Nebraska, 1881). Not only did he devote a page of explanation to 'Spanish-American and Indian Names,' but he also included a six page 'Glossary of Mining

1. A. K. McClure, *Three Thousand Miles through the Rocky Mountains* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott and Co., 1869), pp. 210-212.

Terms used by American, Mexican, Spanish and Cornish Miners.'

Even with such an aid as Crofutt's guide, the uninitiated must have made many mistakes. In dealing with animals alone, he had to select the correct term or expose his ignorance to the ridicule of the frontiersmen. For example, one *traps* beaver, *hunts* buffalo, *trails* deer, *whacks* bulls, *packs* burros, *skins* mules, *punches* or *pokes* cattle, and *herds* sheep.

The Westerner had a good opportunity for the expression of his ingenuity and poetic fancy in naming his mining claim. An enterprising reporter of the *Gilpin County Miner* recently arrived at the following classification, with examples, after going through the early records of Gilpin County:

Some of the names of recorded mining locations indicate a preoccupation with political dogmas or historical personalities: the Specie Payment, the Free Coinage, the Wellington, the Railsplitter, the Gettysburg, the Congress, the William Penn, the Washington, the Salmon P. Chase.

Some bear a faint touch of nostalgia: the Shamrock, Westchester County, California, Caledonia.

Some give evidence of robust faith: Bonanza, Prompt Pay, Croesus Extension, Bread Winner, Big Thunder, Gold Coin, We Got Em, Big Wampum.

Some are coldly practical and skeptical: Last Chance, Try Again, American Tragedy, Mystery.²

Much of the spirit of the West is embodied in the picturesque phrases and the proverbs that one finds scattered through early-day

newspapers and the diaries of pioneers. Some are still heard now and then, although the differences between Eastern and Western expression have diminished greatly during the past sixty or seventy years.

1. A bird can't fly over thar without takin' a supply of grub along—Jim Bridger's description of a desert region.

2. A country where cottonwoods bear fruit—in the early days the vigilantes often used the limb of a cottonwood tree for a hanging.

3. Cross over the range—the old-timer's euphemism for dying.

4. Down grade with no brakes—another figure of speech to describe dying.

5. Drive my stakes—to settle permanently, as in a letter from Denver in 1859, 'I have drove my stakes in this country and I will wait to see results.'

6. Feudal lords of the old southwest—those men who obtained large land grants from the Mexican government before 1846, areas later included in New Mexico and Colorado.

7. Forty dollars and found—the basic monthly rate at one time for a cowboy's services.

8. Git up and git—'It is not wealth, nor birth, nor state; But git up and git that makes man great.'—A bard of the Rockies.

9. Gold is where you find it—what every prospector learned sooner or later.

10. He found a set of horse shoes—he stole a horse.

11. If you're going far, travel light—the advice to those embarking upon a voyage across the plains and mountains.

12. I'll strike it rich next summer—the prospector's usual expression upon coming out of the mountains for the winter.

13. Ink-slinging tenderfeet—the frontiersman's name for Easterners collecting material for Western books.

14. It stands on its own legs—anything that doesn't need proving.

15. Keep still and mind your own business—this advice was attributed to Brigham Young. To the women, he is said to

2. *The Gilpin County Miner*, Central City, Colorado, July 13, 1939.

have cautioned, 'If you see a dog run by the door with your husband's head in his mouth, say nothing until you have consulted with the Church.'

16. Keep your last cartridge for yourself—the order given in the old West at the beginning of every Indian fight.

17. Look through a rope—hanging was recommended for some undesirables by the *Rocky Mountain News* in 1873, with the comment, 'It is good to let some people look through a rope for a while.'

18. Never camp on this side of the stream, always go to the further side—the motto of William N. Byers.

19. Nits make lice—attributed to Colonel Chivington, who ordered the famous attack on Indian men, women and children at Sand Creek in 1864.

20. No breakfast forever—the fate of a person who had met sudden death.

21. A paper of vim, vinegar, vitriol and vitality—in 1882 the *Pueblo Chieftain* thus described itself in its masthead.

22. Produced nothing but profanity—description of a well in desert country.

23. Red hot and still a-heatin'—used in 1876 to describe the aroused state of the citizens of Golden, Colorado.

24. Salt water despots—the Western name for eastern financial dictators.

25. As sensitive as a mule's hind foot—a Western simile.

26. Split our blankets—Osborne Russell's expression for parting company from a partner.

27. Talk is cheap and lies worth nothing—the frontiersman's attitude when answering a tenderfoot's questions.

28. Tangle-leg—a cowboy described its poisonous qualities by saying that one drink of it tempts you to steal your own clothes, two drinks makes you bite off your own ears, while three drinks will actually make you save your drowning mother-in-law.

29. Top-shelfers—the western hunters thus named the wealthy sportsmen. As one mountain man expressed it, he never knew one of 'them thar English lord chaps' outfit, them top-shelfers who come over a-huntin', to be without bear-coated wipers (rough towels), rubber baths, string-

shoes (laced boots), and a corkscrew in their pocket-knives.'

30. Travel the grub-trail—the occupation of a loafer who was too lazy to punch cattle but always showed up at the ranch houses just about meal time.

31. With the bark on—anything rough, either a man, an action, or a joke.

32. The West is hard on women and cattle (oxen)—a pioneer woman's bit of wisdom.

33. Wet cattle—those brought over from Mexico by swimming them across the Rio Grande to avoid duties.

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EUPHUISMS FOR 'GROCER'

Has anyone collected the terms used instead of *grocer*? Two that I have noted recently in Pennsylvania are *provisioner* and *virtualer*. Mr. Espenshade of Bryn Mawr uses 'Quality Provisioner' on his sign.

ELSIE POKRANTZ

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'GAMS'

What is the origin of this now popular synonym of, or substitute for, *legs*? Is it built out of 'gambol'? James M. Cain makes liberal use of it in his last novel *Mildred Pierce* (1941), and Virginia Faulkner uses it in her short story 'A Smattering of Bliss,' in the *Saturday Evening Post* of September 6, 1941: "'Oh, Sam—Sam Fleishauer, he's my agent—won't let me take a chance with my poor little legs,'" said Desire, regarding her superb gams with affection' (p. 35).

O.M.P.

NEBRASKA COWBOY TALK

The sandhill region in Nebraska includes a large area north of the

Platte River. Natives will tell you that it is God's own cow country. Many of the words used by the sandhillers date from Texas Trail days and are common to cattlemen in all the Western states. A few, however, are local in origin. One word, purely local in origin, is *chipper*, as applied to a rancher who is poor or who is in only moderate circumstances. It is used chiefly by the more prosperous cattlemen or by their hands in a slighting sense. If you ask them who a certain individual is, they may reply, 'Oh, he's an old chipper living near Sandy Lake.' Most of the poorer ranchers in the sandhills still gather cow chips (hence the word *chipper*) for their winter fuel.

In the fall of 1940 I accompanied a couple of cowboys to some abandoned ranch buildings in the sandhills of Arthur County. While we were there we saw a herd of cattle being trailed toward the abandoned buildings.

'Bet they're going to bring them right through here,' said one of my companions.

'Nope, bet they won't! There'd be too much chance of the cattle spooking,' said the other.

And a few moments later we saw the course of the cattle changed. They were trailed away from the buildings across the hills so they would not spook. The word *spook* in cowboy parlance means to scare or fill with fright. Cattle that have been on pasture through the summer are easily frightened. One animal will communicate its fear to others, and the entire herd will

spook and run. Anything unusual, such as a tumbled-down soddy, washing on a line, or even the sight of a man on foot, is sufficient to spook a herd.

A *fine cutter* is a horse with exceptional ability in *cutting*, or separating cattle from a herd. Old hands still say *carving* or *chopping* instead of cutting. Calves that have been cut from a herd and counted are *dodged out*. The chute in which cattle are held while being branded is the *squeezer* or *snapping turtle*. To *side line* a steer is to tie two of its legs on the same side together; to *hog tie* it is to tie three of its legs together. To rope a steer is to *put on a string*. A *waddie*, or cowboy, who is good at roping is said to *sling the catgut well*. When a waddie ropes a steer without having the rope fastened to the saddle he *takes a dollie welter*.

Many of the words referring to roping or throwing a cow have become popularized by the rodeo. It's *fair ground* when a steer is roped around the head; then, while it is still running, the rope is allowed to slip over the steer's back to encircle its legs. When a waddie throws a calf by grasping the skin of its opposite flank while it's running, he *flanks* the animal; when he throws it by twisting its neck, he *bulldogs* it; when he throws it by giving its tail a sudden jerk, he *tails* it.

At the sandhill auctions one occasionally sees a cow with a *jingle-bob*, or ear slit its entire length with the pieces flopping. To *fork* a horse means to swing astride or get into the saddle. To *tooth* an animal is

to look at its teeth in order to determine its age. The boss's house is often the *white house* to the hands. The *boss* is the ranch foreman or manager. The *big boss* is the owner of the ranch or outfit. The assistant to the manager or foreman is the *straw boss*, *top screw*, or *top waddie*. The man in charge of a herd on the trail is the *trail boss* or *ramrod*. A hand who rides along the fences and keeps them in repair is a *fence rider*.

A sandhillier who shows a lack of judgment or is careless is said *not to have cow sense*. If he is a fool he is said *not to know dung from honey*. To vomit is to *air the paunch*. Watching a card game is *sweating a game*. Hard liquor is *family disturbance*. Bacon is *overland trout*. When a sandhillier dresses well he *rags proper*. When he grows bold after taking on a few drinks he is *ready to go lion-hunting with a buggy whip*. When he leaves town or a neighboring ranch and starts across the prairie *he hits the flats for home*. A small town is *a wide place in the road*. Telling a tall tale is *telling a windy*. A sandhillier who is washing his face is said to be *washing his profile*, or *bathing his countenance*. A cowboy riding fast is *faggin' along*. When a green hand has acquired a little more experience *he has taken a little more hair off the dog*. When something misfits it is said to *fit like a hog in a saddle*. A waddie who has made a night of it is said to have *stayed out with the dry cattle*.

All the large sandhill ranches

have a *weak, lame and lazy pen*, or a pasture where sick animals are kept. Sheep are *woolies*. Horses used in drawing the hay sleds in winter are called *sled dogs*. The chore of milking is called *pailing cows*. Nearly every community boasts a *Monkey Ward cowboy*, a waddie who sports loud shirts, fancy trousers, fancy boots and a big Stetson. The word *cows* may include cattle of both sexes. *She-stuff* means only females and is not always limited to cattle. I was standing on a street corner in Arthur, Nebraska, one day when a couple of girls passed. A waddie standing nearby remarked, 'Some pretty fancy she-stuff, hey?'

RUDOLPH UMLAND

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MORE UNDERWORLD PLACE-NAMES

In *American Speech* for October, 1940, there appeared a list of place-names used by criminals for various American and Canadian cities, together with brief remarks on the reasons why some of these cities have acquired their names. Meanwhile, several variants have come in¹ along with additional names not

1. Mr. Joseph Blackwell, Jr., of the Virginia State Prison, who with Mr. Clinton Sanders of the same institution has done extensive work with both criminal and non-criminal slang, comments that the initial *the* (he cites *The Hut* and *The Spokes*) is often omitted from place-names in the interest of brevity. While my findings do not agree with those of Mr. Blackwell, I think his comment is interesting in view of his wide acquaintance with argots. I shall treat the use of this initial definite article (which seems to follow a rather well-defined pattern) in a forthcoming study of the criminal *monicker*, now in process.

included in the first list. While many of these place-names have general currency in the underworld, most of them are indigenous to various branches of the *grift*. Because the origins of most of these terms are obvious, explanations are given only for those which are obscure.

BUBBLES. Hot Springs, Ark. (rare)
 THE BURG. Pittsburgh, Pa.
 THE CAP. Washington, D.C.
 CARSON. Carson City, Nev. (The State Penitentiary is located there.)
 CRAW-FISH TOWN. New Orleans, La.
 CROWN CITY. Pasadena, Calif.
 D.B.Q. Dubuque, Iowa.
 E-TOWN. Evansville, Ind.
 HIGH-BROW. Boston, Mass.
 THE HUB. Boston, Mass.
 JACKTOWN. Jacksonville, Fla.
 JOE-TOWN. St. Joseph, Mo.
 JOLLY. Joliet, Ill.
 KEY or THE KEY. Milwaukee, Wis.
 L. Elmira, N.Y.
 THE LAKE. Salt Lake City, Utah.
 LUNGER [lʌŋgə] or [lʌŋə]. Denver, Colo.
 MIMMIE. Miami, Fla.
 MINNIE. Minneapolis, Minn.
 MOLLIE. Mobile, Ala.
 THE MORGUE. Philadelphia, Pa. Criminals do not regard Philadelphia as a very lively city, which probably accounts for this bit of hyperbole.
 MOSS-BACK. Portland, Ore. The etymology of this name is obscure. Notes from readers would be welcome.
 MURPHY. Murfreesboro, Tenn. (Important to criminal addicts because there is a *junk connection* there.)
 NAP-TOWN. Indianapolis, Ind.
 ON THE HILL. Natchez, Miss. This is an old-time gambler's term and probably distinguishes modern Natchez, situated on a high bluff, from old-time Natchez (and particularly the notorious tenderloin district at the foot of the bluff) which was

commonly known as Natchez-under-the-hill.

PADUKE. Paducah, Ky.

THE PORT. 1. La Porte, Ind. (Reputedly a hide-away for Chicago criminals.) 2. Newport, Ky. (Formerly a hideout for Cincinnati gangsters.)

ROME. Richmond, Va. Probably so-called because it is built on several hills.

SACK or THE SACK. Hackensack, N.J.

THE SIZZLING-POT. Yuma, Ariz.

STIRVILLE. Ossining, N.Y. (Sing Sing State Prison). Also humorously known as Stirville-on-the-Hudson.

SUGARTOWN. Salt Lake City, Utah. (So-called because the State Penitentiary there is traditionally known as The Sugar House.)

T.O. Toledo, Ohio.

THE WALLOWS. Walla Walla, Wash.

WIGGINS. Erie, Pa. This name apparently derives from an obscure pun. If someone is *on the Erie* (itself a pun on *ear*) he is listening, or trying to overhear a conversation. When someone has an ear cocked for another's conversation, he is said to be *wiggins*, and such a person is called an *ear-wigger*.

THE ZOO. Kalamazoo, Mich.

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'CHICKEN FEED,' 'RASCAL,' 'ROWEL'

Both Thornton and DAE use Crockett's *Exploits and Adventures in Texas* (1836) as a source and both seem to have overlooked this author's use of *chicken feed* in the sense now current in colloquial speech and listed in dictionaries of slang, viz: 'small change,' or small sums of money, cash.

Crockett, witnessing an exhibition of a variety of shell game, says (p. 49; printing London, 1837, for all page references):

Seated on a chest was a tall lank sea serpent looking blackleg, who had crawled over from Natchez under the hill, and was

Mr. Blackwell has kindly supplied me with two variants for New York City, *The Big Smear* and *The Big Onion*, from his own list of criminal place-names.

amusing the passengers with his skill at thimblorig; at the same time picking up their shillings just about as expeditiously as a hungry gobbler would a pint of corn. . . . I stood looking on, seeing him pick up the chicken feed from the greenhorns, and thought if men are such darned fools as to be cheated out of their hard earnings . . .

Should it be objected that this expression was omitted from the works mentioned because it was slang, one might ask whether the same were not true of *bushwhack* (p. 4) and *idea* (*ideer*, p. 87), a drink, both of which are cited by DAE; and *smaller* (p. 53) and *tortled* (p. 17), both of which are listed by Thornton, all with quotations from *Exploits*. This passage from Crockett should contribute to a solution of the Kuethe-Read argument concerning the omission of this meaning of 'chicken feed' by the DAE (*American Speech*, 14: 235 and 15: 192).

While considering *Exploits* attention might as well be called to Crockett's use of the verb *rascal*, not listed in Thornton, nor in NED. He repeatedly says he was *rascalled out of* his election (p. 17 and p. 33), i.e., cheated out of it.

Crockett's use of *rowel* is likewise worthy of attention, 'though they start at the lowest *rowel* of the ladder' (p. 1). NED has but one citation of this meaning of *rowel*, dated 1652 and marked *obs.*—*I.*

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'HASLET'

The survival of *haslet* (meaning the heart, liver, and lungs of an animal, especially a butchered one)

in Zebulon, North Carolina, is noted in the *Baltimore Evening Sun* for Feb. 19, 1941, p. 19 (editorial page), col. 3, under the heading 'Tarheelese.'

A GRAMMATICAL MIRROR

TO THE EDITOR: Recently we have been going over some old newspapers here and I found the following advertisement which I think should interest you. I see they were doing things with mirrors even as far back as that time.

HALSEY THOMAS
*Curator of Columbiana
Columbia University*

NEW YORK COLUMBIAN,

Friday, 23 October 1818

CLASSICAL, MATHEMATICAL AND
MERCANTILE ACADEMY

Mess. Kelly & Tuomy respectfully inform the public, that they have lately commenced this establishment in the large and airy Rooms, No. 475 Pearl-street, a few doors from the corner of Chatham-street.

Their course of education comprises—the Greek, Latin, French, and English languages; Composition, History, Geography, the use of the Gloves, Book-Keeping, Arithmetic, with the other practical branches of the Mathematics.

Young Ladies have a room appropriated to themselves, where they will be taught a regular course of female education, together with plain and ornamental Needle-work, by a lady of exemplary conduct and long experience in that department.

Reference to ROBERT ADRAIN, P.M.

& N.P. Columbia College. [Robert Adrian was at this time Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy at Columbia.]

PATENT GRAMMATICAL
MIRROR

Mess. Kelly & Tuomy beg leave also to inform the public, that their Grammatical Mirror is now completed and organised, and that they are prepared to undertake its application to the duties of instruction. The Grammatical Mirror is a machine constructed on such principles, and actuated by such laws, as to exhibit a manifest representation of all the parts of human speech, in all the variety of their inflections, and all the diversity of their combinations; it is calculated to impart information more expeditiously than words, whether conveyed by writing or by utterance: letters and sounds are the arbitrary symbols, not the resemblance of ideas; but the Grammatical Mirror presents an exact imitation of the agent with its cases, of the object with its passions, of their substitute with its genders and persons, and of the action with its manners, and its times. The other parts of speech will make their respective appearances in the revolutions of this extraordinary machine. It is no less useful to the teacher than to the pupil; and while it expedites the progress of the one, it will facilitate the labor of the other.

Should any person object to the practicability of its application, they challenge the investigation of

opposition: they cannot consent to an indiscriminate inspection: but any person who shall be qualified to discuss its merits they are willing to admit, and prepared to answer his objections.

Though duty forbids them to acknowledge their own inferiority—yet, they rely not on their diligence and zeal; others may have as much; they rely not on their erudition and talents, others may not have less; but they rely on the co-operation of their *means*, which they contend to be superior to any that can be employed to attain the object it contemplates.

Though they entertain no doubt of its superior general utility, they conceive that for such as cannot afford much time for study, or whose different employments, must confine them to interrupted and desultory lectures, it must possess peculiar advantages.

Several literary characters, who have inspected this machine, have been equally astonished and delighted, and doubt not that experience will realise the most sanguine expectations that are entertained of its advantage and success.

Under these impressions the proprietors of the *Grammatical Mirror* recommend it to public notice, and they are not more desirous of acquiring, than they are confident of securing the patronage of the public.

N.B. They have for general convenience determined to deliver evening lectures, from half past five till half past seven, on any of the above-mentioned branches of literature.

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET

	Bi-labial	Labio-dental	Dental and Alveolar	Retroflex	Palato-alveolar	Alveolo-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b		t d	tʃ dʒ			c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ	n	ɳ			ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Lateral Fricative			ɬ ɮ								
Lateral Non-fricative			l	ɭ			ʎ				
Rolled			r						ʀ		
Flapped			ɾ	ɽ					ɽ		
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð s z	ʃ ʒ	ʃ ʒ	ç ʝ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Frictionless Continuants and Semi-vowels	w ɥ	ʋ	ɹ				j (ɥ)	(w)	ʁ		
Close	(y ɥ u)						Front i y ɪ ʏ	Central ɨ ʉ	Back ɯ u		
Half-close	(ø ɔ)						e ø	ə	ɤ ɔ		
Half-open	(æ ɔ)						ɛ œ	ɶ	ʌ ɔ		
Open	(ʌ)						ə	ʊ	ʌ ɔ		

(Secondary articulations are shown by symbols in brackets.)

OTHER SOUNDS.—Palatalized consonants: *t*, *d*, etc. Velarized or pharyngalized consonants: *ṭ*, *ḍ*, *z*, etc. Ejective consonants (plosives with simultaneous glottal stop): *p'*, *t'*, etc. Implosive voiced consonants: *b*, *d*, etc. *ɾ* fricative trill. *σ*, *g* (labialized *θ*, *ð*, or *s*, *z*). *ɭ*, *ʒ* (labialized *f*, *ʒ*). *ɕ*, *t*, *ɖ* (clicks, Zulu *c*, *q*, *x*). *ɺ* (a sound between *r* and *l*). *ɹ* (voiceless *w*). *ɻ*, *ɹ̥*, *ɹ̥* (lowered varieties of *i*, *y*, *u*). *ɹ̥* (a variety of *ə*). *ə* (a vowel between *ə* and *o*).

Affricates are normally represented by groups of two consonants (*ts*, *tʃ*, *dʒ*, etc.), but, when necessary, ligatures are used (*tsʃ*, *qʒ*, etc.), or the marks ̣ or ̤ (*tṣ* or *ts̤*, etc.). *c*, *ç* may occasionally be used in place of *tʃ*, *dʒ*. Aspirated plosives *ph*, *th*, etc.

LENGTH, STRESS, PITCH. — ' (half length). ' (stress, placed at beginning of the stressed syllable). ' (secondary stress). - (high level pitch); _ (low level); ' (high rising); , (low rising); \ (high falling); ^ (low falling); v (fall-rise). See *Écriture Phonétique Internationale*, p. 9.

MODIFIERS.— ~ nasality. ° breath (t̃ = breathed l). ˘ voice (s̃ = z). ˙ slight aspiration following p, t, etc. ˚ specially close vowel (e̥ = a very close e). ˚ specially open vowel (e̥ = a rather open e). ˚ labialization ɸ = labialized n). ˚ dental articulation (ṭ = dental t). ˚ palatalization (ẓ = z). ˙ tongue slightly raised. ˙ tongue slightly lowered. ˙ lips more rounded. ˙ lips more spread. Central vowels ị (= ị), ụ (= ụ), ẹ (= ẹ), ọ (= ọ), ə̣ (= ə̣), ɐ̣, (e.g. ṇ) syllabic consonant. ˙ consonantal vowel. ˙ variety of {resembling s, etc.

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